The Nation.

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The Week.

Secretary Taft has accepted as an honor Mr. Bryan's designation, "The Great Postponer," and at Tacoma he has reiterated his belief that the Republican party will without fail revise the tariff the year after the election. Revision will be a good thing; he wants it; the country must have it. But not now. Though a great wrong is being done to the consumers, something in the very nature of revision is so dangerous that grave harm might be done were the remedy applied prior to the election. Of such stuff is always the counsel of compromisers, of men who, admitting the wrong, do not dare do right for fear of hurting somebody or something now profiting by wrong. If Mr. Taft can show no firmer fibre than this, his candidacy for the Presidency is not likely to sweep the country. "I am a party man," he declares, and his attitude on the tariff makes that fact sadly clear without his assurance. He knows the history of his party on revision. The Republicans can show enough good intentions and broken promises to repave hell.

Though not a word comes from Albany to show that Gov. Hughes is even aware that we are to have a Presidential election in 1908, strange, unreasoning politicians all over the country persist in bringing forward the name of a man who bears the aureole of no august approval, who stands for no policies but his own, who finds it unnecessary to prove that he did not filch his most popular principles from the Democrats. Now it is Gov. Floyd of New Hampshire who declares that if Gov. Hughes succeeeds in making the record of his second year in office tally with the first, New England will be strongly for him. But conservative New England is not alone. Kansas is responding with amazing warmth to the appeal of silent efficiency and independent achievement.

The result of the New York *Herald's* canvass of Congressional sentiment regarding the Philippines is astonishing in view of the pitifully small number of Republican votes which it has been possible to obtain in Congress for bills or resolutions that looked toward Philippine independence. Out of 138 Senators and Representatives of all parties, only 27 put themselves on record in favor of the retention of the Philippines. Since members of the Opposition are naturally somewhat readier than those of the majority party to air their views, one might suppose this minority to be the Republican element in the poll. On the contrary, more than half of the Republicans whose opinions are here cited oppose the retention of the Philippines. Some declare themselves ready to support any reasonable way of getting rid of our Oriental burden. "I would be in favor of getting out to-morrow if there was any honorable way of getting out," is the expression quoted from Speaker Cannon. Where the declaration for independence is qualified, it is usually by the statement that we should give the Filipinos more time to prepare for self-government. Moreover, the sentiment favorable to giving up the islands is not localized. Republicans are quoted on this side from the States of Maine, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, Kansas, Colorado, and Washington. But the most remarkable revelation is that enough Republican Representatives are desirous of leaving the Philippines now, or at some future date, to hold the balance of power in the House, and, if they are willing to act with the Democrats, to outvote the Imperialists. These facts are not, of course, to be taken as indicating unanimity in regard to particular policies. The sale of the islands, which few friends of the Filipinos would consider seriously, receives more attention than the project of neutralization. But that the time is at hand for giving the Philippine cause a hearing in something more than the barren "general debate" of the House is becoming apparent.

The return of Senator Depew from Europe with his solemn talk about a third term for President Roosevelt and his evident attempt to resume his old position in the public eye serves no other useful purpose than to recall afresh the pitiful Senatorial plight of the Empire State. How long must Republicans and Democrats alike writhe under such misrepresentation as that of Platt and Depew? How much longer will the leaders of the Republican party permit it to continue? So far as Platt is concerned, no honest Republican conceals his disgust at the latest scandals in which this tottering old man has been enmeshed. And Mr. Depew need not deceive himself as to his own status. No lapse of time, no midsummer circulation of his speeches, no desperate clinging to his office, will restore to him such popularity as he once possessed. So far as actual weight in the councils of the nation is concerned, they have none. New York in all truth is without representation in the Senate. In the solution of all the great political problems of the day this commonwealth has only such influence as is wielded by Representatives in the House from the upper part of the State. The plight of the city of New York is particularly grievous; save for a couple of Republican Congressmen, it might as well have no one in Washington. To say that the Republican party is helpless, that it cannot force its Senators to get out, is the humiliating apology made for the apparent indifference of those of its leaders who still lay claim to moral standards and ideals. A petition headed by such names as those of Joseph H. Choate, Gen. Horace Porter, Seth Low, President Nicholas Murray Butler, Dr. Albert Shaw, Henry W. Taft, ex-Gov. Morton, and ex-Mayor Schieren of Brooklyn, or resolutions in local party conventions, could not fail to get beneath the skin of both Platt and Depew.

The perennial subject of desertions from the army is engaging the attention of the Acting Inspector-General, Major Galbraith. The figures of the last fiscal year have not yet been published, but there is every indication that the evil is growing rather than abating, while the number of soldiers who are buying themselves out increased greatly during 1905-1906. The Acting Inspector-General reports the most important causes of desertion as due to the constant changes among company commanders, the deterioration of the regimental spirit, tyrannical sergeants, and lack of home interest and encouragement such as help to cheer and sustain volunteer regiments. Major Galbraith urges a first enlistment of one year only, after which the soldier who was satisfied with the service could reënlist for three years. Since his opinion is the result of an exhaustive inquiry, the experiment might well be made with a few selected regiments. But a more serious fact is that few men who now serve out their enlistments think of reenlisting or of making a career of the army. So far as home ties are concerned, we name our battleships and cruisers after States, but never our regiments. In the English army, however, territorial designations are rigidly adhered to. Thus there are such historic names as "The Royal Fusiliers (City of London Regiment)," "The Royal Warwickshire Regiment," "The King's (Liverpool Regiment)," "The Manchester Regiment," "The York and Lancaster Regiment," and "The Gordon Highlanders." It by no means follows that all the enlisted men in a regiment to-day come from London or Liverpool or Warwickshire

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or Lincolnshire; but the town or territorial connection is still regarded as of value. If we should follow this plan, as Major Galbraith would have us, we could assign the First United States Cavalry to New York, the Second to Massachusetts, the Fourth Infantry to Ohio, etc. Then the War Department could see that, so far as feasible, officers appointed and men enlisted from a State should go to that State's regiment. Finally, a distinctive uniform might be adopted. But after all, the problem is whether the native American can be made to soldier in time of peace as a livelihood. In our opinion, the American character being what it is, the restraints of military life and its emptiness and non-productiveness will never make a strong appeal to young Americans, save in war-time and periods of industrial depression.

The work of restoring the frigate Constitution is said to have been accomplished with exceptional success. But the Secretary to the House Naval Affairs Committee insinuates that Boston can be weaned of its love for "Old Ironsides" by receiving his solemn assurance that there is not a piece of wood the size of a toothpick in the present vessel that was in the Constitution of 1812. There are evidently two ways in which people can look at inspiring relics. Mr. Bonaparte, when Secretary of the Navy, saw no objection to using the old ship as a mark for target practice, though if she had been the original "Old Ironsides" he would doubtless have shared the reverence of the Bostonians. We think that to most people the fact that a vessel has always retained its name and individuality, even though every separate bolt and timber has been replaced once or more, is enough to carry on traditions glorious or inglorious. It is not always the authentic memorial that is most inspiring. The original Declaration of Independence is a sheet of blank parchment, Perry's unreconstructed flagship, the Niagara, is, we believe, a knot of timbers discernible at the bottom of Lake Erie. But Hull and Stewart would recognize in the Constitution of 1907 the ship whose decks they once trod, and that ought to be enough to satisfy our generation.

Mark Twain has declined to stand at the wheel of the steamboat which brings President Roosevelt to the Waterways Convention at Memphis next month. The presence of this former pilot was only intended, however, as a mere incident of the project for interesting the rest of the country in a deep waterway from the Great Lakes to the Gulf. Half a dozen States directly interested are still smarting with their grievance against the Congress which adjourned last March without giving them the appropriation they asked. The plan is of just the sort to stimulate the imagination. The trade of the entire west coast of South America, according to John Barrett, director of the Bureau of American Republics, belongs to the Middle Western States, if only the Lakes-to-Gulf waterway is completed in time to supplement the Panama Canal; "otherwise it will be for Japan, Germany, and England." Western river cities are looking forward with the utmost complacency to the time when transatlantic steamships shall regularly load and unload cargoes at their wharves. There is, we believe, no other engineering project now under way so costly as the construction of the proposed inland waterway. A great amount of Congressional inertia remains to be overcome, but the promoters doubtless feel that they will never have a better opportunity to overcome it than now when Theodore Burton, who so long counselled slow progress on the Mississippi work, is at last to retire from the Rivers and Harbors Committee chairmanship.

On the Pacific Coast no form of Saturday night and Sunday diversion can compare in popularity with the baiting of Asiatic laborers. Vancouver, in British Columbia, has now given evidence of a determination on the part of its citizens not to let San Francisco and Bellingham, Wash., retain their laurels unchallenged; and it must be admitted that for a mere beginning the expulsion of 2,000 Chinese from their homes is not a bad showing. Great Britain's difficulties in this matter of growing conflict between her colonies and her Asiatic subjects and allies continue to increase. Australia will not admit either Hindus or Japanese. Canada seems to be ready to go a step further and adopt rough-and-ready methods of restricting immigration. Probably the Chinese were the only victims of Saturday's rioting, because, as we are told, of extra exertion on the part of the police to protect the Japanese quarter. Had an attack been delivered on the latter, the British Government might find it hard to allay the irritation of Japan. As it is, the famous Anglo-Japanese alliance is showing signs of strain, and western Canada only has to keep up its agitation by word and deed to place Great Britain in the same awkward situation with ourselves in regard to that Empire.

The action of the Interborough-Metropolitan directors in passing the dividend on the $45,000,000 preferred stock should have caused no surprise. When this so-called merger of the subway and street railway lines of New York City was put through in January, 1906, every vicious expedient known to modern finance was adopted in the process. Among these interesting devices was gross overcapitalization of the property as a whole, and the promising to the preferred stock of a "cumulative dividend" which there was no reasonable prospect that the company could earn. A company which fixes a cumulative rate higher than its earning capacity has a burden of charges rolling up, year by year, and is almost invariably forced to reorganize its scheme of capitalization. In one notable instance, that of the United States Leather Company, an 8 per cent. cumulative preferred stock, issued in 1893, never paid more than 6, and often less. By 1905 41½ per cent. in back dividends had accumulated, and the whole enterprise had to be reorganized through issue of bonds and scaling down of dividends. As for the Interborough-Metropolitan, the mere scratching of the surface by the Public Service Commission has already established *prima facie* evidence of something so close to embezzlement that it will be difficult to keep the matter out of the criminal courts. The complacent testimony of its officers that the Metropolitan's books, covering this critical period, were sold as junk, will hardly help the suspected parties. It is a highly appropriate irony of events by which the very expedient of 1906, through which these people hoped to escape the light of day, is bringing their exploits into publicity and the courts.

British domestic politics of late have been absorbing enough to withdraw public attention from the far-reaching measures which the Government has been engaged upon with regard to the unrest in India. Advance reports of the contents of the Anglo-Russian agreement, which has been or is about to be concluded, make it practically certain that the two Powers have entered into an arrangement which tends to remove England's chronic anxiety about the northwestern frontier of India. Within the peninsula great reforms are at hand. A document issued by the India Office in the last days of August announces the impending creation of an Imperial Advisory Council, "which, without impeding the free action of the Executive Government of India in the general conduct of affairs, would in some degree associate the great ruling chiefs and territorial magnates of British India with the Governor-General in the guardianship of common and Imperial interests." Provincial advisory councils are to be created for the discharge of analogous functions within narrower limits. The Imperial Council is to consist of about sixty members for the whole of India, including some twenty native chiefs. In the provincial councils the great and small landowners and the professional classes will be represented. In addition to these new bodies, the existing Indian and provincial legislative councils are to be ex-

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tended, in what precise manner it is not yet stated, but probably in a direction that shall result in giving the native population a far more important influence than at present. The leaders of the popular movement will not be satisfied with these concessions, inasmuch as their aspirations reach towards a parliamentary form of government, if not complete independence. Even of the former, however, there can be little hope, in view of Mr. Morley's declaration that the Government of India "is, and must inevitably remain, absolute and personal."

President Castro of Venezuela characterizes as "an insult cast in the face of the smaller nations," the proposal to constitute the international prize court and arbitration court on a basis of graduated representation. He says:

> The nations in this case must not be classified by appearances, as their standing as free, sovereign, and independent nations makes them equal, one with the other.

Passing by the fact that at the time of the boundary dispute Venezuela was very willing to recognize our Government's claim to superiority by letting us espouse her cause as that of an inferior nation, there is still excellent material on this continent for an answer to Castro's argument. The equality of the great and small States is one of the postulates of the American Union. Nevada and New York are equal in the Senate, and sovereign within their fields. But that does not mean that their influence is equal in the affairs which they undertake jointly. Even aside from the House of Representatives, where the differences of population are expressly recognized, the greater States make their superior importance felt. In practice, our Supreme Court, for example, is constituted almost exactly on the plan suggested for the new Hague tribunals. Some of the larger States have been almost continuously represented on the Supreme Bench, while the majority have furnished a justice only at intervals, if at all. If that plan is accepted without protest by States which were, in the beginning, at least, intensely jealous of their privileges, it is hard to see a burning wrong in giving the great Powers rather more than their share of places in a court that will deal largely with causes of a kind which the smaller nations are unlikely to bring up at all.

Morocco is getting very much into the condition of a Donnybrook Fair, with Moors knocking each other's heads, and France as the police constable who will ultimately gather the rioters in to receive a sentence of so much indemnity and so many days—or years—under French occupation. There is the Sultan at Fez, there is the Sultan lately proclaimed at Marakesh in the south, there is the Pretender in the northeast, Raisuli in the northwest, and various Saintly Fathers of the Faith, of the People, and of the She Ass, promiscuously distributed over the empire. Official opinion at Paris still clings to the assertion that nothing beyond the restoration of peace and the enforcement of the provisions of the Algeciras Convention is contemplated. The French press, however, generally perceives that the situation is one approximating a state of war, and the demand is growing for a summoning of Parliament, which shall deal with the needs of the case in a proper way. Meanwhile, we have the rather amusing spectacle of French official authority insisting, "We don't want to conquer Morocco," and German official authority, through an inspired press, clamoring, "Go ahead, and do it." Bismarck is said to have looked with favor upon the beginning of French colonial enterprise, because it tended to dull the memory of Alsace-Lorraine. The policy would be far sounder in the present instance, since Morocco offers not only a field for expansion, but a chance for keeping France actively engaged for years to come.

Like the traditional testator, the date of whose probable demise is a subject of eager speculation for his heirs, the Dowager Empress Tsu-hsi may yet go on baffling diplomatic expectations for years to come. The question of the appointment of an heir to the throne is said to be agitating the Peking court and the ranks of the Manchu governing classes. But the matter is by no means so important now, from the point of view of international politics at least, as it would have been only three years ago. Then China's fate hung in the balance, and the personality of its ruler would have been undoubtedly an important factor in any crisis that might have arisen. To-day China's national integrity is guaranteed by an imposing series of compacts to which Japan, Great Britain, Russia, and France have subscribed. The choosing of a successor to the weakling Emperor Kwang-hsu is of importance chiefly to the Chinese themselves, in so far as it will affect the relations between the mass of the people and their Manchu rulers. To Japan alone the possibility, or at least the hope, may be open of swaying to some extent the action of the present Government in its plans for the future; for Japan has now undoubtedly means of exercising pressure, peaceable or otherwise, which the other Powers lack. Dread of Japanese interference, strengthened by recent events in Korea, may be partly responsible for the reported growth of anti-Japanese feeling in China.

In the London *Times*, Paul Sabatier criticises severely the reactionary policy of the Pope, especially his attitude towards "modernism." He declares that more should be conceded to the liberal Catholics. The representatives of "two mentalities, two civilizations" confront each other, and modernism must prevail. So Pius X. should give up the futile struggle and become reconciled to the champions of progressive thought. Moreover, Sabatier begs the Pope to "hear the silent prayer of so many millions of human beings who hunger and thirst and wait." They are not looking for any supernatural manifestation or revelation, but only "a word of human truth, of living reality." Even if it were possible for the Pope to break with the traditions of the Latin Church, and encourage a crusade in behalf of liberal thought, he could take no such step without being wholly inconsistent with his formal utterances, such as his letter to Cardinal Svampa, in 1905, prohibiting the Congress of Bologna and his recent bull directed against Biblical critics. If modernism is to prevail soon, it must be without, not within, the Catholic Church.

In spite of the mass of affirmative evidence that mental processes may be localized in the brain, there is still skepticism among men of science. At the recent Congress of Anthropology at Strasburg, Prof. Alfred Stieda of Königsberg read a paper on the convolutions of the human brain. Although the cerebrum of the lower animals is smaller and simpler in structure than that of man, the professor denied that complexity is a sign of superior psychical powers. He made a report of his examination of the brain of the Swedish linguist Sauerwein, who, besides being a sort of *doctor universalis*, was master of fifty-four languages. If, he argued, physiologists are right in regarding the second frontal convolution as the centre of speech, one might expect to find some peculiarity about this part of Sauerwein's brain; but, as a matter of fact, it was quite ordinary. Moreover, in deaf mutes, there is nothing abnormal in Broca's convolution, as that region is called. Professor Stieda opposed the generally accepted idea that the anatomist can distinguish a diseased from a healthy brain, and scoffed at Lombroso's doctrine of the "criminal type." That which alone differentiates one brain from another, he held, is the amount of gray matter present. Since the time of Goltz there have always been a few neurologists who doubted localization, and they have usually been able to make out a strong case by presenting a number of "negative instances." The evidence in favor of localization is, however, well-nigh overwhelming.

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PRESTIGE OF THE MAYORALTY.

Representative Burton's consent to stand for the mayoralty of Cleveland, against Tom L. Johnson, will attract national attention to the ensuing political contest. This will be because of the issues as well as the personalities involved. The event will also give us a new measure of the political importance of the mayoralty of a great city. Mr. Burton has conquered a distinguished place at Washington. No man in the House carries more individual weight. A studious, independent, and useful legislator in the national field, he now turns aside, at the urgent call of the Republicans of Cleveland, to accept a local office, if the voters decide to confer it upon him. This fact of itself challenges to a comparison of the opportunities offered by these two forms of public service.

Mr. Burton does not conceal his reluctance to take the step. He yields only to an almost overwhelming appeal. It is a dubious battle to which he is summoned; but in his statement of the conditions under which he is willing to assume the leadership, he marks out the lines upon which he means to conduct the fight. In stipulating that the rest of the ticket shall be made up of men commanding public respect and acceptable to him, he guards against the great handicap under which Edward M. Shepard labored, when he took the Tammany nomination for Mayor of New York. Mr. Burton does not propose to be himself a good candidate pulled down by bad associates. And in demanding that the platform and the campaign be entirely free from domination by the traction interests of Cleveland, he does all that he can to meet in advance the charge that he is put up by the companies to beat their great enemy, "Three-cent Tom." Cleveland has for years been convulsed by the street-railway issue. On it Mayor Johnson has repeatedly ridden into power. The question has been made a football of, both politically and financially; and Mr. Burton puts it as a condition of his candidacy that a definite plan of settling the relations of the companies to the city be proposed and carried out during his term of office, if he is elected.

When we read further that the financial affairs of Cleveland are disordered, it is clear that Representative Burton will be able to make a peculiar bid for support. He is both a student of finance and a man versed in practical financial administration. In his long service as Chairman of the Rivers and Harbors Committee he has had to deal with large matters, and has done it in a large way. Of national expenditure in general, he has made careful analysis, and his speeches on that subject in the House have shown a grasp comparable to Garfield's. If Cleveland is looking for a Mayor well equipped to grapple with details of debt and expenditure, and to put her finances on a sound basis, Mr. Burton is the man.

It is now fully twenty years since the mayoralty, in American cities, began to take on a new significance. This was partly because the office seemed to offer new possibilities of political advancement. Mr. Cleveland's march from the mayoralty of Buffalo to the Governorship of New York and thence to the Presidency, fired the imaginations of many. All over the country mayors began to rear their heads as fair marks for political lightning. In this respect, however, the seeeming promise of the mayoralty has not been fulfilled. The office of mayor has been the tomb of many political ambitions. New York mayors have been peculiarly unlucky in this regard. After the recent examples of Hewitt and Van Wyck and Low and McClellan, an inscription might well be placed above the door of the Mayor's room in the City Hall: "Leave all political hope behind, ye who enter here." Taking the country by and large, there have been a few exceptions: Gov. Higgins of Rhode Island began as mayor of Pawtucket; but the mayoralty has not, as a rule, been a stepping-stone to political advancement. Neither "Golden Rule" Jones of Toledo nor Tom Johnson of Cleveland was able to become Governor of Ohio. Nor was Mayor Quincy of Boston promoted to be Governor of Massachusetts; Harrison of Chicago failed to be made Governor of Illinois, and so on. "There's them as has done it," said the mayor-elect of a small town, when gravely told that he was in the right way to become Governor and then President. So there are; but they are as few as the righteous men in Sodom. As a means to the gratification of political ambition, the mayoralty cannot be said to make to-day the appeal that it once made.

Yet the real importance of the position of mayor has been heightened, year by year. This has resulted inevitably from the great municipal movement in this country during the past two decades. A city-consciousness has been developed. Cities throughout the land have set themselves with new earnestness to the task of making themselves more sanitary, more safe, and more beautiful—more worthy, in a word, of the increasing millions who inhabit them. As an aid in this vast work, the office of mayor has been clothed with more power. The tendency of all the new city charters is to centre responsibility in him. In that aspect Cleveland's charter is one of the most progressive, and if Mr. Burton is chosen mayor, he will have a free hand in moulding the municipal administration. All told, then, if a man desireth the office of a mayor, he desireth a good thing. It is no bed of roses; it is a very uncertain basis for expecting even the gratitude of one's fellow-citizens, to say nothing of their political rewards; but it furnishes a chance for doing a large work which may well appeal to any man sure of his capacity, as well as of his public spirit.

A SUGGESTION TO LABOR LEADERS.

On Labor Day at the Jamestown Exposition Samuel Gompers paid his respects to "rampant, vindictive, and greedy employers." Within ten days his words have been followed by swift and sharp comment. Strikers at San Francisco have assaulted non-union employees of the United Railway; strikers at Antwerp have set fire to warehouses and burned up property worth several millions of francs; and both in this country and Europe there have been a number of minor outrages upon workmen and employers who prefer not to submit to the dictation of labor unions. Now, no one will deny that there have been and are to-day employers to whom the adjectives "rampant, vindictive, and greedy" justly apply. For such men we share Mr. Gompers's abhorrence. Furthermore, no one will deny that certain capitalists, relying on their wealth and power, have defied the civil and criminal authorities and broken our laws; and Mr. Gompers is no more anxious than we are to see such men receive exemplary punishment—not mere fines, but imprisonment.

We conceive, however, that Mr. Gompers, as president of the American Federation of Labor, can at the present moment render his greatest service to the community in general, and wage-earners in particular, not by indulging in cheap denunciations of employers and "injunctions as issued against workmen," but by instructing the members of his Federation in certain rudiments of economics, and showing what they can and cannot legitimately attempt. The movement for the open shop is steadily spreading throughout this country; and it is spreading simply because the demands of the men for whom Mr. Gompers is spokesman are so preposterous and unjust. The labor unions often impose conditions under which it is impossible to conduct a manufacturing enterprise, conditions that must ultimately result in ruin of the labor union itself.

We do not now refer to the crimes or violence which have marked this last week. For destruction of property and assaults upon person there is no conceivable excuse. These, however, are the regular and trusted weapons of labor unions throughout the United States. The leaders and the walking delegates sometimes make half-hearted professions condemning disorder; but in their heart of hearts these leaders place their reliance on brickbat and dynamite. They

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know that if the life of a non-union worker and the buildings of an open shop were perfectly safe, many of the unions would fall to pieces in twenty-four hours. More than one labor organization lives simply and solely because it can terrorize both employer and employed. But the resort to violence, though secretly encouraged, is publicly disavowed.

Our criticism is rather of certain avowed policies which are almost as indefensible as rioting itself. Let us illustrate by one or two typical instances. Not long ago, Doubleday, Page & Co., publishers, of this city, installed machinery which will feed paper to printing presses with greater regularity and at greater speed and consequently with greater economy than men can feed it. Thereupon the Feeders' Union in New York insisted that as many men should still be employed as would be required if no mechanical feeder had been invented; in short, that a number of men should be kept on full wages, with nothing to do but sit around and see the presses fed better by machinery than by hand. When Doubleday, Page & Co. refused to grant this crazy request, the feeders—and the pressmen, who had no grievance—struck; and, according to last accounts, they are still out. Fortunately, the firm is strong enough to fight its battle through. Far different has been the outcome of a similar contest in Berkeley, Cal. Three young men started there a small daily paper, the *Independent;* having carried on their project successfully for several months, they scraped together all the capital they could lay hands on and invested over $15,000 in a modern press and stereotyping machinery. Such a plant had been operated elsewhere by two men, or at most two men and an assistant, with an expenditure of between $40 and $50 a week for wages. But the local Web-Pressmen's Union insisted upon four pressmen at $30, $24, $24, and $15 a week, and two stereotypers at $30 and $24. The payroll would thus be $147 a week. Since the six men were forbidden to do any other work except that for which they were specifically engaged, they would not have had over two hours of work apiece daily. The proprietors of the *Independent*, seeing in such terms nothing but bankruptcy, refused to start their new labor-saving machinery. The union then revised its schedule, and cut the wages down to $96 a week. That was still twice as much as necessary; the union remained obdurate; and the publishers of the *Independent* have been forced to sell out.

To multiply examples is useless. We might refer to the silly rules against handling non-union material though that material—say a carved mantel of the fifteenth century—is made under conditions in which the unions cannot have the slightest interest. But the point which we wish to emphasize is that, from New York to California, the unions are still busy resisting the introduction of labor-saving devices—as busy as if that cause had not been hopelessly lost a hundred years ago. The progress of invention has been marked by a thousand bitter struggles in which labor has invariably been defeated. The cruel hardships endured by displaced workers and the methods of ameliorating their sufferings are topics for separate discussion. But if the history of the factory movement proves anything, it proves that the economic forces which impel men to use machinery whenever it is cheaper than hand-labor are absolutely irresistible. If there is any one fact with which a labor leader should be familiar, it is that. If there is any one truth which Mr. Gompers and his associates should spend their days and nights in impressing upon their followers, it is that those who contend against the immutable laws of the development of civilization, like those who appeal to violence instead of reason, are foredoomed to defeat.

MISSIONARIES AND COLONIAL RULE.

Dispatches from London speak of a serious strain between the American Congregational missionaries in Natal and the authorities. The Government's hostility is based on the alleged fact that in the formidable Zulu insurrection of 1906, the spirit of disloyalty was particularly strong among the natives connected with Christian missions. The Congregational system of erecting churches under native pastors is specially objected to, on the ground that it tends to inculcate in the natives a spirit of independence which is incompatible with the safe maintenance of European control. The charges of disloyalty have been denied by the Secretary of the American Board of Foreign Missions, who asserts that out of the thousands who participated in last year's uprising in Natal, "our converts showed loyalty to the Government by jeopardizing their lives," and altogether "less than fifteen did anything that could possibly be interpreted as disloyalty."

The situation in Natal is typical of the growing hostility with which colonial administrators the world over look upon the white missionary. He is unpopular throughout British South Africa and in India, King Leopold does not love him in the Congo, Germany has had trouble with him in Southwest Africa and the Cameroons, and he has been described as a general nuisance in China. And the reason is everywhere the same. The native convert, "spoiled" by too literal an interpretation of the gospel and excessive humanitarian coddling, becomes restless, insubordinate, and imbued with ambitions that are totally at variance with political expediency. The Rev. James L. Barton's reply that less than fifteen Christian converts took part in the Zulu insurrection may, for instance, turn out to be a fairly damaging admission, if it should be shown that these fifteen were among the prominent leaders of the revolt. That is precisely the grievance of the various colonial administrators, that the educational work of the missionaries serves to create a class of native leaders who in turn act upon the mass of the population. Thus in Natal the Government insists that native pastors be replaced by white clergymen, or, in other words, that no African be allowed to attain a position of prominence.

We fail, however, to see why the missionaries should think it necessary to assume an apologetic attitude in the matter. Rather, their position should be the militant one. For they must know that not only have they been in large measure the pioneers who have built up colonial realms for Europe, but they are still a powerful instrument for the prosecution of that civilizing work which the military commander and the trader would so greatly like to have out of the way. It is really an open question whether, for every native uprising that missionary education can be made responsible for, you would not have a dozen uprisings if the missionary influence were not present to act as a restraint upon political and economic oppression on the part of the dominant whites.

Practically, what the Jingo Imperialist says to the mission worker is this: You may show the way to us by exploring and mapping virgin country, as Livingstone did; you may compile native syllabaries and accounts of customs and modes of thought, so that we may communicate with our subjects in the performance of our duties; you may build hospitals, orphanages, and houses of refuge, and preach physical cleanliness and sanitation; you may occasionally offer a victim to the fury of the mob; you may even erect schools, if you will see to it that the knowledge imparted is in direct line with the preordained subjection of the colored man to the white, and raises no difficulties about such necessary phenomena as hut taxes, forced labor, and judicial floggings. Once you have imbued the native mind with these fundamental ideas of Imperialist evolution, it were best if you stood quite aside and let us manage things. We can imagine the extreme official view as taking the form that the only good missionaries are dead missionaries. In that state they are worth huge indemnities and entire Chinese provinces. Alive, they are only in the way.

From the days of Las Casas it has been the province of the Christian minister among subject peoples to fight

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against their unscrupulous exploitation by foreign masters. The rôle is difficult and unpopular, but essential to the conception of the missionary's office. Without it, he would be defenceless against the charge that his advent has been only the heralding of a "civilization" that has come unasked upon the native, and come upon him for his enslavement and destruction. With it, the missionary vindicates his position as one who seeks to introduce the benefits of a higher civilization, while mitigating its evils. Missionaries may be called busybodies or disguised political agents, or self-seeking, or anti-patriotic. As a matter of fact, we do not believe that the American missionaries in Natal fomented sedition among their converts; or that E. D. Morel, the agitator for reform in the Congo, draws a subsidy from the British Government; or that the Catholic brethren in the Cameroons wanted to make themselves absolute masters of the colony. On the other hand, what the world has learned about Zulu taxation, or the rule of King Rubber in the Congo, or the amiable practice of German officials in cutting off the limbs of insubordinate servants and tying women to the trunks of trees until death by starvation ensued, is of distinct value. We owe it almost wholly to missionaries.

"RECONSTITUTING" HISTORY.

Continued skepticism and criticism respecting Francis Laur's account of the secret meeting between Bismarck and Gambetta in 1878, have at last drawn an explanation from the latter's literary executor. Challenged to produce his authority and his documentary evidence, if he had any, M. Laur writes a long letter to the London *Times*. In it he exhibits a most engaging frankness, combined with a simplicity which few historians could hope to rival. Documents? *Dieu vous garde*, he hasn't a scrap of written evidence. Bismarck left no record. Gambetta never wrote about the affair. But his companion, Mme. Léonie Léon, shortly before her death told M. Laur about the secret interview (place and time both indefinite), and thereupon, "with the aid of my notes, I was able to reconstitute the narrative."

Such a justification of the original story is really its destruction. M. Laur has shown himself so inaccurate in many of his details that it is fairly open to doubt if he correctly understood or remembered what he heard from Mme. Léon. This is the more probable when we find him admitting that she "did not attach importance" to her revelations. But if Gambetta actually did meet Bismarck and discuss with him for three hours the question of limitation of armaments, and a general good understanding between France and Germany, it was an event of the highest importance. No one could have been more keenly aware of this than the gifted woman with whom Gambetta shared for years his political secrets and ambitions. If she slighted her story, as given to M. Laur, it is altogether probable that he did not at the time catch its true drift, and afterwards greatly exaggerated both facts and inferences.

One touch in M. Laur's defensive letter is exquisite. Taking up one of the formidable objections to his whole narrative, he undertakes to show why Bismarck himself never spoke of the historic scene with Gambetta, why he concealed it from everybody, "even from posterity." The reason lies in Bismarck's extreme delicacy of feeling. Count Henckel-Donnersmarck had before sought to arrange an interview between Gambetta and Bismarck, but his efforts had failed. Therefore, writes M. Laur:

> Bismarck did not want—and the sentiment is one for which we can only do him honor—to wound Count Henckel by letting him know even by posthumous revelation that the interview for which he had taken so much trouble had actually taken place and was kept from the knowledge of so devoted a friend as himself.

But this is a revelation to the world more startling than anything M. Laur had divulged. If Bismarck was not a rough man, trampling with his military boots upon the tenderest susceptibilities, and strewing his conversation, letters, and reminiscences with brutal references to men and women, but was truly a being all compact of the finest consideration for the feelings of others, then, indeed, it was time that M. Laur set about "reconstituting" the biography of the German Chancellor. But his attempt to set up such a Frenchified Bismarck will cost him more labor, and cause more hilarity at his expense, than his account of the covert meeting between Bismarck and Gambetta at Friedrichsruh or Varzin or somewhere else, some time in 1878, or some other year.

In fact, Bismarck did not simply conceal the interview; he denied that it had ever taken place. This is made clear by Lucien Wolf, in his destructive analysis of M. Laur's explanation. The Donnersmarck letters established the fact of the effort of Count Henckel to bring about an interview. But Mr. Wolf now reports:

> The *démenti* of the 1878 interview appears as a note to the correspondence with Count Henckel in the "Briefwechsel" (vol. ii., p. 505). Here it is distinctly stated that "eine Zusammenkunft hat nicht stattgefunden." When I quoted this in my letter to the *Times* of the 21st inst., I was under the impression that it was only an editorial statement of Prince Herbert Bismarck. Dr. Horst Kohl, who performed the editorial work under Prince Herbert's supervision, has now informed us that the statement was made to him by the Chancellor himself when he confided to him the *carton* containing the Henckel-Donnersmarck correspondence.

After that, we scarcely need the round denial of the Hamburg *Nachrichten*, still inspired by the Bismarck family and tradition, to make us believe that the famous interview never occurred.

With the main edifice destroyed, it may seem hardly worth while to look at the ornamentation, yet M. Laur's vivid "reconstitution" of the conversation between the French and the German statesman has its suggestion for historical writers. His method might be said to be, in its way, an imitation of Thucydides, who must have invented many of the speeches he put in the mouths of Cleon and others. The contrast is between the picturesque school and the dryasdust. A passion for documents of any or all kinds has long dominated historical research. This was highly necessary, and yielded important results, but it did often lead to terribly dull writing. Sainte-Beuve exclaimed against the "déchiffreurs de chartes et de parchemins d'archives," whom he said he loved and revered for their learning, but who had wrought the evil of introducing into literature the worship of old papers. We have suffered many things from that cult, and could welcome a reaction in favor of histories which would not necessarily be untrustworthy simply because they were interesting. But M. Laur's unhappy plight shows us that the "reconstitution" of history must be done only by a man sure of his facts, who has himself done the requisite grubbing down among the dead men, and comes up, not with skeletons, but living human figures.

THE ETHICS OF TOYS.

A clergyman having attacked the Teddy bear on the ground that its substitution for the doll is undermining the maternal instinct, one of the magazines of "new thought," *The Stellar Ray*, comes forward with a qualified defence of that popular toy. "Perhaps," it suggests, "the love of the Teddy bear tends to dispel the fears that formerly haunted the dreams of childhood, perhaps it tends to broaden the sympathies of the little mother to the animal kingdom, cultivating a spirit of protective love for all creatures."

A friendly disposition toward bears is an excellent thing to have, especially in a community which is not infested with real bears that might take unfair advantage of a child's advances. The bear which waits around the corner to devour naughty little boys and girls loses its terrors when the child knows by experience what an amiable, comfortable beast it is. Thus the toy may have robbed childhood of one of its terrors. Those "conflicting impulses toward fearing and fondling" which, according to the psychologist, beset the child in presence of

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a new animal, are intelligently directed. The fear of wild animals being no longer in civilized countries an aid to the survival of the race, it is just as well that bears should be regarded as friends of humanity.

In fact, there is no reason why other ferocious beasts, like the lion, the crocodile, and the shark, than which no creature is more feared by the children of inland towns, may not be admitted to a similarly intimate footing in the family. We speak of intimate footing, because these beasts have been actually present in the nursery for generations. But the Noah's Ark bear and the Teddy bear are not close kin. The Noah's Ark animals are no more capable of inspiring affection than Shem, Ham, and Japhet, or their indistinguishable wives. The Teddy bear's vogue—if that astonishing phenomenon, which would so greatly perplex the archæologist who might dig up one of our cities buried this year, can be explained at all—is due to the touch of quaintness and humor with which the little beast is portrayed. We do not mean to say that that same touch would insure popularity to another toy animal, but merely that popularity would doubtless be very hard to obtain without it.

Moreover, it is not the part of reasonable and foresighted men to discuss the ethics of the toy that is with us without considering also those that are still to be designed. The American rabbi who recently returned from an unsuccessful mission to persuade the Nuremberg toymakers to give up the manufacture of toy soldiers did thus look to the future. The interest of the small boy in martial trappings must, in his view and that of other well-meaning people, breed a temper favorable to future wars. Toys connected with the arts of peace will, conversely, interest the father of the man in the pursuits which make nations really happy and great. It is somewhat singular in this connection that the toys which do concern the arts of peace, like miniature engines and toolboxes, are among the most dangerous in the whole toy-shop. That Tommy, while safeguarded from the unhallowed influences of the tin soldier, may be blown up by a tin boiler or saw off his fingers, is one of the factors that make this whole problem so complicated. We can barely refer to the historical argument that from the ruins of the most martial civilizations of antiquity, like those of Rome and Assyria, our archæologists are perpetually digging up children's toys, not in the shape of soldiers, but of dolls and cats and little clay pigs.

Beneath and behind all these charges of demoralization by playthings is the more comprehensive anxiety lest modern toys may be destroying the child's imagination. As the scenery now provided has destroyed in theatre audiences the faculty of seeing forests and castles and palaces on a bare stage, so, it is charged, the perfection of our "practicable" toys has inhibited the child's invention. The train that runs by real steam, on a real track, with real switches, furnishes nothing like the stimulus of "playing train" with blocks of wood. Thus we are developing a generation of Peter Bells, which can see only what is before its eyes, and which therefore is painfully open to literal impressions. The old-time child to whom a clothes-pin might be at one moment a soldier and the next a pillar for a cantilever bridge, could not be much harmed. But the new, to whom a toy soldier is a soldier and nothing but a soldier, will have the suggestion impressed upon his consciousness till he goes to Congress and votes an appropriation for 50,000-ton battleships and an army of 500,000 men.

We think, however, that this theory is unjust to childhood. Juvenile imagination has not been killed. Made unnecessary in some of the mechanism of play, it has expressed itself in new channels. And nowhere is it more active than in counteracting the dangerous suggestions of the toys themselves. It can make a twenty-dollar mechanical toy as protean as a lump of coal. The Teddy bear, having supplanted the doll, is put to bed, invited to tea, and engages in all manner of other evolutions familiar to dolls, but utterly foreign to the nature of bears. The toy soldier, despite the fact that every button of his uniform conforms to the latest edition of the army regulations, will go to tea with the same bear, become a savage or a farmer, or take any other part his commander chooses for him. On the other hand, the nursery *Kriegspiel* involves the impressment not only of civilians, but of building blocks and crayons. The child can play at war without military toys; he can also play at peace though he has nothing but martial equipment to do it with. It is the clear perception of this fact that gives the alarmists of the toy-shop such small audiences.

THE SITUATION OF HISTORY IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

It is less than nine years since the American Historical Association, in the report of its Committee of Seven, submitted a carefully framed plan of historical study for secondary schools. The essential features of that report were: first, the indication of four historical fields — ancient, mediæval and modern European, English, and American—in which instruction should be given, and which, singly or in combination, should be accepted by colleges as part of their admission requirements; and, second, the repudiation of the exclusive devotion to the textbook, which, up to that time, had generally obtained, and the insistence upon the vitalization of historical instruction by enlarged and systematic use of collateral reading, informal lectures, special reports, map drawing, historical pictures and objects, and student note-books.

The wide and vigorous discussion of this report, not only by special bodies like the New England History Teachers' Association, but by educational organizations of a more general character as well, has resulted in a very considerable acceptance of its recommendations, in whole or in part, by leading colleges and universities. The specification of requirements in history adopted by the College Entrance Examination Board is that of the Committee of Seven. So far as any scheme of historical instruction in secondary schools, whether with or without reference to preparation for college, may now be regarded as a standard, it is the one formulated in the report in question.

In the light of the experience of these nine years, it seems worth while to consider once more the recommendations of this epoch-making report. No one individual, of course, can have close personal knowledge of more than a few schools, nor has the present status of history teaching in the United States been comprehensively inquired into. It may be proper for me to state, accordingly, that the observations here made are based mainly upon my experience as a college teacher, one of whose duties is the preparation and conduct of certain entrance examinations in history; upon inquiries systematically pursued during the past six years at summer schools at Harvard, Cornell, the University of Chicago, and the University of California, where the students include teachers from a large number of States; and upon two years' service as chief examiner in history for the College Entrance Examination Board.

Speaking generally, it may be said that the methods of teaching history in secondary schools have undergone, within the brief period under consideration, fundamental and praiseworthy change. Formal use of the textbook, with its inevitable insistence upon verbal repetition and the dry memorizing of dates and names, has much declined, and in most of our best schools would not now be tolerated. The content of the subject, too, has changed: less time is spent on military events and incidents of romance or adventure, and more on the social, economic, and international aspects of the field. History, in other words, has come to be looked upon less as a body of chronological facts to be learned outright, and more as the interesting story of vital social development. Reference libraries in schools, though still far from adequate, have multiplied and improved, and the public library has lent its aid. There is general insistence upon map drawing, and increasingly generous provision and use of illustrative material, notably pictures. As a direct result of these new methods, there has arisen a demand, largely unknown hitherto, for specially trained teachers, a demand which the history departments of colleges and universities, by changes in their own methods and programmes, are endeavoring to supply.

These are substantial gains, and of the right sort. They testify to the vitalization of a subject from which an unintelligent formalism had squeezed most of the breath of life. On the other hand, there have been some failures and reverses, to-

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gether with some persistent criticism of the fundamental plan. For one thing, the delimitation of the field of ancient history by the Committee of Seven is strongly, and on the whole increasingly, objected to. As bounded by the report, ancient history is made to include not only the history of Greece and Rome during what is often called loosely the classical period, but also the history of Egypt, Babylonia, and other Eastern nations on the one hand, and the history of western Europe from the end of the line of Western Roman Emperors to the time of Charles the Great on the other. I must confess never to have been able to see the propriety, on historical or other grounds, of the delimitation in this case recommended by the committee; and I am sure that a very large number of our best teachers, in both colleges and secondary schools, are of the opinion that the history of Greece and Rome, with the story of Rome ending not later, certainly, than the latter part of the fifth century, is the portion of ancient history most suitable for secondary schools.

A more serious criticism has to do with the method of instruction which the present requirements presuppose. While it is generally agreed that the pupil should read as widely in historical literature as possible, anything more than incidental use of collateral reading has been found, in practice, so time-consuming as to be well-nigh out of the question. Undoubtedly the difficulty here is less with the method than with the excessively crowded curriculum of the average school; nevertheless, with conditions as they are, it has not yet been proved generally possible to secure from a class any considerable use of books other than the textbook, without giving to history a disproportionate amount of time. In other words, books of biography, of travel, of reminiscence, and the like, besides formal histories, may now and then be dipped into as pleasant and useful expansions of the textbook narrative, but their systematic use as a really substantive part of the instruction is impracticable with the time available. Moreover, the developed use of collateral reading presupposes library facilities, and especially provision of duplicates, such as few schools yet possess; nor can most public libraries supply the demand which the needs of large classes inevitably create. As for the preparation of student notebooks based upon reading or research, that has frankly become a farce, most of the creditable books being those which the teacher, rather than the pupil, has made.

The character of the pupil's attainments in history, too, has changed, if examination questions and answers are a safe criterion. There is a striking lack of orderly and exact knowledge, even of elementary matters, and a pervading reliance upon the general and the vague. Examination questions have often tended to become general rather than specific, and to demand a breadth of knowledge and maturity of judgment beyond what most young people possess. The colleges having insisted that the schools shall not teach dates exclusively, many schools have responded by not teaching dates at all. As a consequence, it not seldom happens that an answer in an examination book contains little specific error, and yet fails entirely to show whether or not the writer really knows anything about the subject. I do not think that this unsatisfactory condition is to be ascribed to any lessened use of textbooks; for textbooks, notwithstanding the reprobation of them, continue to multiply, the best of them are infinitely better than the best of twenty years ago, and there is scarcely a history class anywhere that does not make systematic and predominant use of them. Certainly teachers of history are not to be indicted for lack of zeal or industry, nor, in the larger and better schools, for less fitness for their task than teachers in other departments. The cause, I am convinced, lies chiefly in the fact that the amount of work involved in the recommendations of the Committee of Seven cannot, as a rule, be satisfactorily accomplished in the time generally available, if the method which those recommendations also propose is to be followed. In other words, the prevailing requirements in history for admission to college cover too much ground, and cover it in a manner beyond the powers of the average pupil and the resources of the average school.

I venture to suggest three steps which, it seems to me, it would be helpful to take under the circumstances. The first is a reconsideration of the requirements, especially those in ancient history, and, by consequence, in mediæval and modern European history. This is appropriately the work of the American Historical Association, which gave its sanction to the recommendations of its committee, and which should be asked to approve any proposed changes. The second is the abandonment of the attempt to test collateral reading or general historical knowledge, as such, by means of examination questions, and the restriction of examination questions to topics specifically dealt with in the best text-books, and to historical geography. This is a matter for the colleges and universities, and for such bodies as the College Entrance Examination Board. The third is the radical simplification of the crowded curricula of secondary schools, in the direction of fewer subjects at a time, and those more thoroughly taught, together with the provision of facilities, such as books, maps, and illustrative material, for the teaching of history as adequate in all respects as the facilities admittedly necessary for every other subject in the study programme. This is a matter for school authorities and the public, as well as for teachers everywhere.

WILLIAM MACDONALD.

Providence, R. I.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

The interest in first editions of Kipling, which fell away a few years ago, seems to be reviving. He is the ideal author for the collector: His early books were printed in India in small numbers and in fragile paper covers, and two, at least, were suppressed. His later books have been printed in large editions, and can never become scarce, but in some cases, at least, he has prepared good hunting for future collectors by printing several poems and some prose articles in exceedingly small numbers, mainly for copyright. Just how many of these privately printed pamphlets have been prepared we do not know. Of his poem "Cleared," which appeared in the *Scots Observer* in 1891, some copies were pulled off separately as a broadside. Of "White Horses," which appeared in *Literature* October 23, 1897, a few copies were printed as a pamphlet of ten pages in a lilac paper cover. Of "Captains Courageous," which ran as a serial in *McClure's*, a few copies were printed from the types of the magazine as an octavo pamphlet before the appearance of some of the instalments. The text of this pamphlet issue was slightly revised for the first edition of the book, published here by the Century Company, and in London by the Macmillans, 1897. These pamphlets, though rare, are not unknown to collectors, and several have been offered at public sale. The seven following pieces have not, we believe, been described before. They are all handsomely printed small 12mo. pamphlets, except "The Islanders," which is an octavo. We give a line for line transcript of the titles and a short collation of each piece:

Cruisers | A Poem | By | Rudyard Kipling | Copyright | MDCCCXCIX | By | Rudyard | Kipling | All Rights | Reserved | The Doubleday And | McClure Company | MDCCCXCIX

9 leaves, cover lettered "Cruisers."

The Reformer | A Poem | By | Rudyard Kipling | Copyright | MDCCCCI | By | Rudyard | Kipling | All Rights | Reserved | Doubleday, Page | And Company | MDCCCCI

8 leaves, cover lettered "The Reformer."

The Lesson | A Poem | By | Rudyard Kipling | Copyright | MDCCCCI. | By | Rudyard | Kipling | All Rights | Reserved | Doubleday, Page | And Company | MDCCCCI

10 leaves, cover lettered "The Lesson."

Bridge-Guard | In The Karroo | A Poem | By | Rudyard Kipling | Copyright | MDCCCCI | By | Rudyard | Kipling | All Rights | Reserved | Doubleday, Page | And Company | MDCCCCI

11 leaves, cover lettered "Bridge-Guard | in The Karroo."

The Islanders | A Poem | By | Rudyard Kipling | Copyright | MDCCCCII | By | Rudyard | Kipling | All Rights | Reserved | Doubleday, Page | And Company | MDCCCCII

8 leaves, cover lettered "The Islanders."

The above, which are all in verse, are printed upon one side of the leaf only, and the leaves, not pages, are numbered. They are all interleaved with blank paper, for the purpose, apparently, of giving more bulk. The two following pieces are in prose, and the leaves are printed on both sides, the pages numbered:

Railway Reform in | Great Britain | By | Rudyard Kipling | New York | Doubleday, Page & Co. | 1901

Title p. [1]; copyright and imprint of Norwood Press, p. [2]; text, pp. 3-27; blank, p. [28]. Cover lettered "Railway Reform in | Great Britain | Rudyard Kipling."

Below the Mill Dam | By | Rudyard Kipling | New York | Doubleday, Page & Co. | 1902.

Title p. [1]; copyright, p. [2]; text, pp. 3-29; blank, p. [30]. Cover lettered "Below the Mill Dam | By Rudyard Kipling."

According to pencil inscriptions in the copies described twenty-five copies of "The Islanders" were printed, but there were twelve copies only of each of the others.

The books known among collectors of Americana as "captivities" are attractive, and early editions always excite interest in the sales-room. They are the narratives of experience, often very curious, of persons who in the early days were taken captive by the Indians. The writers were sometimes actuated by religious zeal and a spirit of thankfulness in publishing the accounts of their adventure. The H. R. Huntting Company of Springfield, Mass.,

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has just reprinted in old style as a "dumpy" little volume (350 copies) the "Narrative of the Captivity of Mrs. Johnson," first printed at Walpole, N. H., in 1796. There were other editions printed at Windsor, Vt., in 1807 and 1814; Lowell, Mass., in 1834; New York, in 1841, etc.

Correspondence.

MISS COLERIDGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The sudden death of Miss Mary Elizabeth Coleridge on August 25 has left a void in literature as well as a dear memory with many friends. It is just ten years since the publication of her best novel, "The King with Two Faces," announced the advent of another Coleridge to that world of English letters where her family had filled so large a part, and of another Coleridge gifted with the same fine quality of intangible romance, and with much of the same "shaping spirit of imagination," as had haunted and distinguished the greatest of them all. Miss Coleridge had already published before that a characteristic book, "The Seven Sleepers of Ephesus" (1893), in which her friends had realized her strength. But in this earlier book a certain want of definiteness, an inclination to love half-shadows overmuch which her novels did not always escape, prevented any popular recognition of her work. With more than a touch of her great-uncle's genius, she had inherited some of his elusiveness, too. "Coleridge's poetry," a considerable critic once wrote, "leaves too much of the feeling of a walk through a fine country on a misty day"—peeps of great beauty with tantalizing shadows interspersed; from this perplexing quality Miss Coleridge's earliest book, like some of her latest books, was not quite free. But in "The King with Two Faces" she came into her own. She struck at once a note of high romance: and the story and its setting were such as all the world could understand.

Miss Coleridge was not a rapid worker, and the claims of family and friendship always with her came before her own. It was some years before this success was repeated. Her next novel, "The Fiery Dawn" (1901), with its brilliant sketch of the Duchesse de Berri and her forlorn high-spirited enterprise among the Legitimists of France, original, characteristic, and full of fine romantic interest as it is, was less clear and striking than its predecessor; and the slighter sketches of modern life which followed it, unconventional and imaginative as they are, were less suited to the genius of a writer who worked best upon a high, ambitious theme. But "The King with Two Faces" stands apart. As a historical novel, it has had no rival of late years. Its treatment is in the highest degree original. Its canvas is singularly large. The art which can carry the reader without effort through some of the most stirring scenes in the life of Gustavus of Sweden—that crowned knight-errant, half hero, half demented dreamer, but always impressive, wayward, picturesque—and which, unsatisfied with that full theme, can plunge him into the heart of the French Revolution, and reproduce the touching gallantry of Fersen and the brilliant egotism of Madame de Staël, without losing the romance of the story in the larger romance of the history it enfolds, is art of no ordinary kind. Mystery and adventure are ever present in the air; and mystery, touched with a rare imagination, is the atmosphere which it seems natural for the Coleridges to breathe. The dramatic opening of the book, the charm and wonder of the early chapters, the haunting sense of calamity impending, the fresh and captivating movement of the tale, the picture of Gustavus appearing on a gaunt hack, worn, draggled, imperturbable, alone, after midnight, at the gate of Gothenburg, the picture of Marie Antoinette, a stately and beautiful woman sitting by the fire, holding a little child in her arms, and singing to it low and wearily, while yet a touch of irresistible gayety in the soft, sweet voice brought tears into the listener's eyes—

> Ah, que je fus bien inspirée
> Quand je vous reçus dans ma cour!—

touches and pictures such as this help to make up a story which lovers of good literature will not allow to die.

But admirable as this great novel is, and full of charm, of fancy, of discrimination as are the essays which Miss Coleridge occasionally published, and the criticism of books which she contributed to the *Monthly Review* and to the literary supplement of the London *Times*, her most characteristic work was in her verse. Literary criticism was a form of writing which gave her great pleasure, and which she did specially well. Literary counsel and encouragement, things which she appreciated greatly, and which perhaps to some extent she needed for herself, were gifts she never grudged her friends. Henry Newbolt and Robert Bridges, who were for years among her literary intimates, and other writers not less known and distinguished, delighted to exchange opinions and confidences in literature with her. And many who knew her closely owed almost as much to her fine taste and to her fastidious judgment, as to the example which she unconsciously set them of a beautiful and an unselfish life. She had the power which Carlyle attributed to Samuel Taylor Coleridge, a signal power of "attracting brave souls." But the two little volumes of exquisite verse which she published anonymously, "Fancy's Following" and "Fancy's Guerdon," small in bulk as they are, contain the most delicate and finished work which she produced. Imagination of a rare intensity, a sense of melody most finely tuned, and a fancy touched in no small degree with that magic and enchantment which have led Shelley and Swinburne to speak of Coleridge's lyrics with almost exaggerated praise, stamp these little volumes with a quality which only high poetry attains. Sympathy and understanding fell to Miss Coleridge in a measure in which they fall to few. Her critical faculty, always watchful and illuminating, perhaps aroused self-criticism which checked her in creative work. But in her short literary life she has left us enough to justify a great tradition, and to win the admiration of the public as well as the hearts and the homage of her friends. M.

West Horsley, Leatherhead, England, August 30.

Miss Coleridge also published two other novels, "The Shadow on the Wall," 1904, and "The Lady on the Drawing-room Floor," 1906; and a volume of essays, "Non Sequitur," 1900.

GERMAN METHODS OF STUDYING LITERATURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been much interested in Professor Kuno Francke's letter (*Nation* of August 15) in defence of Lamprecht's "Germany in the Eighteenth Century," and especially in their common opinion of the methods of the literary historian who thinks he has explained everything when he is able to point to some foreign literary influence, and to whom the tracing of the formal influence of one writer upon another is the chief end rather than one of many means. But what does Professor Francke mean when he says: "Fortunately, we may add, such views are not held by any one worth considering"? Is it not a fact that such views are the almost unanimous opinion of the academic scholars of Germany? Though in the study of modern German literature itself there may have been some advance, there are a hundred or more university professors whose special fields lie in English, French, Italian, Spanish, Scandinavian, or mediæval literature; I challenge Professor Francke to mention more than half a dozen whose point of view is other than the one he condemns. Thousands of doctoral dissertations in these fields, the results of the university training of their authors, have been published in the last decade; I challenge him to mention half a dozen whose point of view is not the same. When he says that "such views are not held by any one worth considering," does he mean to bring a general indictment against the literary training of the German universities? J. E. SPINGARN.

Leedsville, N. Y., August 29.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am very glad indeed to find in Professor Spingarn an ally against the soulless and spiritless methods of studying literature which prevail to-day, not in German universities alone. If he were t press me, I should feel bound to admit tha of the doctor dissertations on literary jects, either from Germany or Amer which have come to my knowledge during the last ten years, the bulk seemed to me hardly worth serious consideration. As to living literary historians of repute, I certainly could not name more than half a dozen who approach a work of literature from within rather than from without. But is not this a good many? Does not in this respect also the old saying hold good: Εἰς ἐμοὶ μυρίοι? KUNO FRANCKE.

Gilbertsville, N. Y., September 4.

INFANT MORTALITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In reading the interesting review of Dr. Newman's "Infant Mortality" published in your issue of August 1, (p. 104), I felt a suspicion that the statistical foundation for the author's argument was not beyond challenge. Can you grant me a little space in which to raise the question?

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Dr. Newman states his subject as follows:

> The infant mortality rate . . . is not declining, and this is the broad fact which constitutes the problem to be considered. Children under twelve months of age die in England to-day, in spite of all our boasted progress, and in spite of an immense improvement in the social and physical life of the people, as greatly as they did seventy years ago (p. 18).

Elsewhere he generalizes his results for England in the statement: "The infant mortality rate, as a rule, is stationary or even increasing" (p. 7).

Every one knows that deaths of very young children constitute a great proportion of all deaths, but to be informed that they constitute an increasing proportion, that the steady and rapid decline of the death rate at nearly every age does not extend to infants, but that they, almost alone in the community, are not profiting from the medical and sanitary progress in which we take pride, may have aroused in the minds of others of your readers, as it did in mine, both surprise and incredulity.

The question not considered by Dr. Newman, but of primary interest to your readers, Is infant mortality in the United States increasing? may be considered first. The best answer to it is found in the rates for the registration area. These were 206 deaths per 1,000 infants living under one year of age in 1890, and 165 deaths per 1,000 infants in 1900. The conclusion from these figures is supported by evidence from Massachusetts, our most important registration State. In that State the average death rate under one year of age to 1,000 births for 1890 to 1894 was 16.3; for 1895 to 1899 was 15.2, and for 1900 to 1904 was 14.1. This evidence points to a marked decline of infant mortality in the United States.

Let me ask in the second place whether Dr. Newman is correct in his general statement of "the problem to be considered," whether it is true as a rule that the rate of infant mortality "is not declining," but "is stationary or even increasing." The French Government has recently made a compilation of the vital statistics published by the several European countries from the earliest period, and has analyzed the results. In the section dealing with deaths, published in 1906, the conclusion regarding infant mortality is stated as follows: "In almost every country, infant mortality is decreasing, the exceptions being the United Kingdom, Ireland, Denmark, and Belgium," and the tables preceding this discussion show a decrease of infant mortality in fourteen countries of Europe, and an increase in only five, three of which are England, Scotland, and Ireland. Apparently a decrease of infant mortality is the rule in Europe, and not the exception.

Let me ask, finally, Does England constitute a real exception to the general fact? Does the country at whose feet in matters of registration and of sanitary legislation the world has been sitting for three-quarters of a century stand almost alone in showing no decrease of infant mortality? The evidence offered by Dr. Newman, seemingly conclusive as it is, fails to convince me. When he probes that evidence carefully he finds that "there has been an *increase* in the deaths in the first trimester, accompanied by a *decrease*, or at least an almost stationary position, in the last two trimesters of the first year of life"; and that "within the first quarter the rise has been almost wholly in the first month, and within the first month almost wholly in the first week" (p. 15). He does not hold then that there has been any significant increase of infant mortality in England after the first week of life.

Nearly forty years ago one of the leading statisticians in France, Dr. L. A. Bertillon, published the following statement:

> In England we cannot hope to measure infant mortality accurately, because there are many omissions in the registration, both of births and of the deaths of infants.

In support of this statement he pointed out that an interval of six weeks was, and I believe still is, allowed to elapse between a birth and its registration instead of the three days usually prescribed in the Continental countries; that no registration of still-births was required; and that the rates of infant mortality in France and England after the first month were almost identical; but that for the first month the rate in England was only half that in France, showing clearly "that many deaths of children occurring during the first month are not registered" (sc. in England). I am not aware that this criticism has ever been answered. Certainly it is accepted as valid by the French publication of 1906 already quoted. A committee of the House of Commons reported in 1893: "There is reason to think . . . that the number of children buried in the United Kingdom annually as still-born is enormous"; that is, that many children born alive, but dying within the forty-two days allowed for registration, are buried without registration of the birth or death. Now we have only to assume that these violations of law have become a little less frequent during the period covered by the figures in order to find in that change a complete explanation of the apparent increase in the mortality of very young infants in England.

WALTER F. WILLCOX.

Cornell University, Ithaca, September 2.

Notes.

The Macmillan Co's fall announcement list includes a new novel by F. Marion Crawford, "Arethusa," a tale of Constantinople; "The Gulf," an American story by John Luther Long; new translations of Björnson's "In God's Way" and "The Heritage of the Kurts"; "Theodore Roosevelt: the Boy and the Man," classed as a "juvenile," by James Morgan; "The Iliad for Boys and Girls," by A. J. Church; "Florence and the Cities of Northern Tuscany, with Genoa," by Edward Hutton; "Highways and Byways in Kent," by Walter Jerrold, illustrated by Hugh Thomson; "Rivieras of France and Italy," painted and described by Gordon Howe; "The Seven Ages of Washington," by Owen Wister; "My Life in the Underworld," by Jack London; the Memoirs of Alexander Dumas, translated by E. M. Waller; "The Gentlest Art," an anthology of the most entertaining letters in the English language, edited by E. V. Lucas; "Philosophical Essays and Discussions," by Frederic Harrison; "A Self-supporting Home," by Mrs. Kate V. Saint Maur; "An Artist's Reminiscences," by Walter Crane; the Letters of the late Dean Hole; the second volume of Prof. Edward Channing's "History of the United States"; "British Colonial Policy, 1754-1765," by George Louis Beer; a new volume of poems by Alfred Noyes; "Specimens of Modern English Literary Criticism," selected by Prof. William T. Brewster; "England," a discussion of the organization and construction of its government, general, local, and colonial, by Prof. A. Lawrence Lowell; "Essentials of Economic Theory," by Prof. J. B. Clark; "The Rate of Interest," by Prof. Irving Fisher; "The Government of European Cities," by Prof. William Bennett Munro; "Essays in Municipal Administration," by Prof. John A. Fairlie; "The Outlook for the Average Man," by Dr. Albert Shaw; "Primitive Secret Societies," by Prof. Hutton Webster; "Negro Races," by Jerome Dowd; "British State Telegraphs" and "Public Ownership and the Telephone in Great Britain," by Prof. Hugo R. Meyer; "Railway Corporations as Public Servants," by Henry S. Haines; "Principles of Taxation," a volume in the Citizens' Library, by Max West; "Introduction to the Study of Comparative Religion," by Frank Byron Jevons; "the Seeming Unreality of the Spiritual Life," by President Henry Churchill King; "Religion and Social Reform" and "New Theology Sermons," a companion volume to "The New Theology," by the Rev. R. J. Campbell; volume ii. of Edward Westmarck's "Origin and Development of the Moral Ideas"; "Life in the Homeric Age," by Prof. Thomas Day Seymour; "Linguistic Development and Education," by Prof. M. V. O'Shea; "Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading," by Prof. Edmund B. Huey; "Pupil Self-government," by Bernard Cronsom; "Theories of Style," by Prof. Lane Cooper; "Educational Woodworking for School and Home," by Joseph C. Park; and "Economics for High Schools," by Prof. Frank W. Blackmar. The works of Byron, with a biographical sketch by the late Sir Leslie Stephen, will be added to the Globe Poets.

The Century Co. will issue this fall a new series of books made up of stories and sketches reprinted from *St. Nicholas*. There will be six of these books of adventure, travel, and description, the scenes laid in different sections of the United States; the books will be called: "Western Frontier Stories," "Stories of the Great Lakes," "Island Stories," "Stories of Strange Sights," "Sea Stories," and "Stories of the South."

The Baker & Taylor Company will publish soon the Memoirs of Frédéric Mistral and "The Story of Joseph"—the Joseph of the Old Testament—by George Alfred Williams.

Harper & Brothers are publishing immediately "In Wildest Africa," illustrated with many photographs by the author, C. G. Schillings; and "Discoveries in Everyday Europe," an illustrated volume of humorous sketches by Don C. Seitz.

Frederick McCormick, a war correspondent for the Associated Press, has written the story of the struggle between Russia and Japan as he saw it. The Outing Publishing Co. will issue the book under the title "The Tragedy of Russia in Pacific Asia."

The Burrows Brothers Company has just issued Dr. Bernard C. Steiner's Life and Correspondence of Dr. James McHenry, Secretary of War under Washington and Adams,

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which was awarded the John Marshall prize at Johns Hopkins for 1907. The work presents a number of letters, hitherto unpublished, from men of the Revolutionary period. The Birch miniature portrait of Washington is used as frontispiece.

"The Story of a Cannoneer under Stonewall Jackson," by Edward A. Moore of the Rockbridge Artillery (New York: The Neale Publishing Co.), is a "plain, unvarnished" narrative of a private soldier of the Confederacy, a narrative as full of incident and adventure as any novel ever penned. He who likes to read of hard fighting will be more than satisfied with it, for the Rockbridge Battery of Artillery was one of the two or three best-known artillery companies of the Confederate armies. Enlisted at Lexington, Va., in Rockbridge County, the site of Washington College (now Washington and Lee University), and of the Virginia Military Institute, in which Stonewall Jackson was a professor until called to the field, this battery was composed largely of Washington College students and sons of prominent families, including after a while, as a private, a son of Robert E. Lee. The Rockbridge Artillery followed Jackson until his death and then fought on until Appomattox Courthouse. Mr. Moore, owing to his youth and the previous enlistment of his brothers, did not join the Rockbridge Corps until March 10, 1862. After that he shared its fortunes save when at home from wounds or disability. He makes no effort to describe or comment on the campaigns, but he has remembered so many details of camp and battle, so many comic, so many moving and tragic incidents of his service and of his comrades, that the book possesses genuine value despite occasional eccentricities of style which careful editing would have avoided. Certainly, no one can read Mr. Moore's homely but bright narrative without receiving a vivid picture of what the civil war meant to the Southern private. For this reason it deserves a place in all libraries of that war, particularly as it includes a roster of what was a singularly gallant and well-commanded organization among many such in the Confederacy. Introductions by Robert E. Lee, jr., who served with the artillery, and by Harry St. George Tucker add nothing to the value of the volume.

Albert Stickney's "Organized Democracy" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is one of those radical pleas for political reconstruction which, however little likely to be adopted or even seriously considered, are not without usefulness as criticisms of existing political evils. Mr. Stickney is convinced not only that we have not true democracy in this country, but also that we cannot have true democracy so long as the present electoral and administrative systems prevail. Under popular election of all officials for fixed terms, joined to the party system, all that the voter can do is to vote for the candidate of this or that machine; his own personal choice, if he have one, he cannot possibly register. The remedy Mr. Stickney urges is the establishment, in local, State, and Federal Government, of a system of single-headed administration, with the heads of departments controlled directly by a Legislature the members of which are popularly chosen by *viva voce* vote. For tenure during short terms there would be substituted tenure during good behavior. Congress, for example, would become a body of one house with the power of removing the President, but without control over subordinate appointments. We fear that Mr. Stickney is too optimistic, and too little appreciative of the difficulty in this country of achieving reforms by wholesale; but his shrewd observations and obvious seriousness make his book not uninteresting. Incidentally, we commend to the curious the extraordinary punctuation of the volume.

President Nicholas Murray Butler's "True and False Democracy" (Macmillan Co.) comprises three addresses, the two besides the title paper dealing respectively with "Education of Public Opinion" and "Democracy and Education." There is here no exposition of a novel theory, nor yet a plea for revolutionary changes in political machinery or organization. To President Butler, the bases of political health are in personal right thinking and right acting, in clear intellectual perception and sturdy moral conduct. With the fundamental errors and still more dangerous half truths of socialism in mind, he insists that true democracy can never mean equality, save of opportunity, but that its essence is liberty, exercised with due regard for the rights of others and instinctive respect for law. There is an earnest plea for better political education, for wiser leadership, and for the repudiation of the boss, who does not lead, but drives. The papers are admirably phrased, and merit thoughtful reading.

"Races and Immigrants in America," by Prof. John R. Commons (The Macmillan Company), is a worthy addition to the literature of a subject whose significance is, we fear, too little apprehended as yet. Beginning with a brief survey of the historical relation of race to democracy, Professor Commons goes on to consider somewhat in detail the varied race elements in the American colonies, including the negro, and the geographical and social sources of the nineteenth century additions. With this foundation, he then takes up the combined questions of race and immigration as related to or affected by labor demand and supply, industrial opportunity and efficiency, rural and urban life, literacy, poverty and crime, suffrage and political status, and amalgamation and assimilation. Well fortified throughout by statistics, and evidencing a wide range of observation, the great merit of the volume is its sensibleness. Professor Commons points out, for example, that the "race hostility" of which much is said is not primarily racial in character at all, but rather "the competitive struggle for standards of living"; and that it appears to be racial "because, for the most part, different races have different standards" (p. 115). "Race suicide" among the masses of wage-earners is one of the natural results of such a struggle; and while Rooseveltian exhortation is well enough for those who can act upon it, multiplication of offspring for people to whom young children must be an economic burden amounts, in Professor Commons's opinion, to an attempt to cure race suicide by race deterioration. On the other hand, the preponderance of adults among immigrants, together with the intense desire of the immigrant to rise in life, has helped to bring about the "feverish overproduction" and consequent collapse which have characterized American industry. As regards the future of the negro, to whose unhappy lot the volume devotes a good deal of space, Professor Commons seems pretty pessimistic, though the situation is admittedly bad enough. We cannot enter into the details, however, of any of the author's conclusions, and can only commend the book as a thoughtful and enlightening contribution to the understanding of a serious subject.

In the third volume of the Student's Old Testament, "Israel's Laws and Legal Precedents" (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons), Prof. Charles Foster Kent reaches a field where classification and rearrangement of the Scripture text is of great value to the student of the development of Hebrew religion and social usages. The legal portion of the Old Testament is arranged in five general divisions: (1) personal and family laws; (2) criminal laws, comprising injuries to persons, property, and society; (3) humane laws, emphasizing the duty of kindness to animals and men; (4) religious laws, defining obligations to God; and (5) ceremonial laws, containing minute directions regarding worship and the ritual. This classification is both logical and, in a rough way, chronological. The history of the development of Hebrew legislation, its wide range, and remarkable ethical and religious significance, are by this means brought graphically before the reader. The relation of the legislation to the work of the prophets is set forth clearly, and the dependence of the Hebrew codes upon the older Babylonian enactments is frankly acknowledged. Professor Kent declares:

> Nowhere in all legal literature can the genesis and growth of primitive law be traced so clearly as in Israel's codes thus restored. They also represent the most important cornerstones of our modern English laws and institutions, and therefore challenge and richly reward the study of all legal and historical students.

One who has had experience of the mass of facts which lie ready to one's hand when one undertakes to describe any of the great religions, will appreciate the forbearance and skill with which Prof. Karl Marti of Bern has brought out the distinctive features of Hebrew piety in "The Religion of the Old Testament," now translated by the Rev. G. A. Bienemann (G. P. Putnam's Sons). So far as we are aware, no one has gathered more successfully into brief compass the more vital matters in the modern understanding of Old Testament religion. The special inquirer on a particular subject, *e. g.*, the ark, the Levites, might be disappointed to find his topic treated so summarily, but the beginner in scientific and comparative study of the Old Testament would be correspondingly grateful that a rapid glance over the whole field is afforded, with those features in the foreground which more thorough research will prove to be essential. The development of Hebrew belief is analyzed in four periods, the Nomad religion, the Peasant religion, the religion of the Prophets, the Legal religion. The general understanding is that of Wellhausen, with recognition of a large original element in Hebrew piety despite near relationship at many points to faiths of the nearer East. Professor Marti has avoided idiosyncrasies of opinion to such an extent

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that one might use a phrase common among critics, and describe his work as the "product of a school," without detracting in the least from his independence of research and of judgment. As to the translation, it is usually possible to see the author's meaning, but such phrases as "it is thanks to the prophets," "religiosity" (in a good sense), "Babel" for Babylon, indicate careless editing.

Cæsar's Civil War with Pompeius has been translated with introduction and notes by the Rev. F. P. Long, for Henry Frowde. Since the masterly reproduction of Cæsar's account of his campaigns in Gaul by Holmes, we have needed a similar treatment of his Civil War; and the appearance of this translation, though very different in style, is a matter of congratulation to students of the most interesting period of Roman history. The translator prefixes to the narrative a thoughtful and well-written introduction, in which he summarizes the conditions at Rome which rendered the rise of Pompeius and Cæsar inevitable; he shows with great clearness that it is quite unjust to regard Cæsar as a rebel against a state which had practically driven him to the measures he adopted. The text on which the translation is based is that of Du Pontet, in this regard marking a refreshing change from the servility to German editions, which has characterized most English, as well as American, work in recent years. The translation itself, while not free from occasional inaccuracies or even mistakes, shows, in the main, the hand of a master of English, as well as of Latin; it is full of the dash and vigor of the original and only occasionally shows that it is a translation. In some respects, perhaps it is too English; *e. g.*, English technical terms of a rather special meaning are sometimes employed, which an American would find it a little difficult to understand, as the rendering of *consules* by *Government* in the narrow Parliamentary sense.

In his "Volkschule und Lehrerbildung der Vereinigten Staaten in ihren hervortretenden Zügen"—the fairest and most interesting book concerning American schools yet written by a German (imported by G. E. Stechert & Co.)—Dr. Franz Kuypers of Cologne disclaims any thorough study of our institutions and presents what he has to say rather as "impressions of travel." Yet he saw a great deal in the few weeks that he was here in 1904, the assembled exhibits at the St. Louis Exposition assisting him materially to get a comprehensive view. His tabulated facts, penetrating criticism, and hearty praise are brought home to the teacher by not less than forty-eight engravings, illustrating many phases of American school life from the kindergarten to the high school, as seen in New York, Boston, St. Louis, Salt Lake City, and elsewhere. In a *Vorwort* of ten pages, Dr. Kuypers contrasts the *Schulmonarchie* of the Germans with the *Schuldemokratie* of the Americans, and finds that though we may fail in idealistic training while excelling in the practical, the Germans may learn much from us, particularly by way of suggestion. A bibliography calls attention to German as well as English books on American school affairs.

Another book just imported by Stechert & Co. is Georg Kerschensteiner's "Grundfragen der Schulorganization," a collection of addresses and essays by the Munich school commissioner, dealing with the period of the German *Junge* between school and army service, professional and general training, productive labor and its educational value, the fundamentals in the organization of high schools, the training of teachers, the reorganization of the industrial schools in Munich, and various matters pertaining to the advanced schools for girls and the relation of the municipality to the schools. Though almost exclusively German, and specifically Bavarian, in its point of view, the book will be suggestive to intelligent American teachers.

Modern archæology in Japan may almost be said to have been begun by American scholars, when A. S. Bickmore declared the Ainu of Yezo to belong to the Aryan race, and Prof. E. D. Morse discovered and opened a shell heap on the line of the Tokio-Yokohoma Railway in 1875. Now, the Japanese pursue the work themselves, having opened over four thousand tumuli, dolmens, or megalithic chambers. Besides endowing professors' chairs of ethnology, they are creating museums of the highest anthropological interest. On Yezo Island, the Rev. John Batchelor has for thirty years made the Ainu his special study, demonstrating their language to be Aryan. In a recent paper in the *Japan Mail*, he retracted his formerly expressed belief in the existence of a dwarfish and pre-Ainu race of pit-dwellers. These were called Koropokguru, and about them a voluminous popular and pseudo-scientific literature has gathered. The recent writings of Japanese archæologists are uniform in discrediting the existence of any such race, besides proving that the Ainu themselves were pit-dwellers and that they made pottery, used paint and flint knives, and lived in the stone age. Their conquerors, continental and possibly of Semitic origin, used metal, and were in other respects more perfectly equipped for conquest, which was completed only after a struggle of two thousand years. In Part I, Vol. i of the Transactions of the Sapporo Natural History Society is a valuable brochure on the *chasi*, or forts enclosed by fences or embankments used by the Ainu in defence against their Japanese conquerors. Traces of these are found not only all over Yezo, but in northern Japan, while the geographical nomenclature on both islands is in harmony with the conclusions of the archæologists, that the Ainu, speaking an Aryan tongue, once inhabited the whole archipelago.

One of the "Morning Stars of the Restoration" in Japan, was Dr. Hashimoto Sanai, born in Fukui in 1834. The celebration in 1908 of the fiftieth anniversary of his death is to be marked by the publication of his complete works, with a new biography. Besides being a master of Chinese learning, he studied Dutch, and through this medium knew much of the history, literature, and science of the world. He foreshadowed in his writings much that has become fact in the modern government, national policy, and education of Japan. Besides practising medicine he founded the school of modern sciences and languages in Fukui, which was, after 1870, conducted by American teachers. He was among the first to secure steamships, develop mining on modern principles, and to adopt vaccination, modern hygiene, and European military drill and arms. When his feudal lord of Echizen, was, with other liberal minded daimios, imprisoned in the agitations which arose after the signing of the Townsend Harris treaty, Hashimoto, with nearly fifty other upright and loyal men, was seized and put to death by the arbitrary Yedo premier Ii.

Acting on the recommendation of the New York Library Association, at its last annual meeting, the New York State Education Department has undertaken the publication of a quarterly journal in the interest of the libraries of this State. While news of general library interest will be touched on briefly, and one or more articles dealing in a broad way with questions of library policy will be contained in each number, the design of the new quarterly is specifically to deal with local or State matters, with the idea of developing among the libraries of the State a stronger sense of unity and a more effective coöperation. The first issue will appear on or before the first of October, and will have as its chief topic the selection of books for small libraries. The following papers dealing with this question will be included: "Principles of Book Selection," by Corinne Bacon; "What Can We Get Out of a Henty Book?" by Caroline M. Hewins; "The One Hundred First Books for the Children's Library," by Clara W. Hunt; "One Hundred Dollars for a Reference Collection," by J. I. Wyer, jr.; "Some Useful New York State Documents," by J. I. Wyer, jr.; "Subscription Books"—advice of the American Library Association committee on book-buying. Other features of the first issue will be a paper on simple methods in library work by Mrs. E. E. Ledbetter; a "Question Box," dealing with some homely library details; "What New York Does for Libraries," and "News and Notes of New York Libraries." The journal will be sent free to all libraries and members of library boards in the State who make application. To others the cost will be twenty-five cents a year or ten cents a copy.

The project recommended at the international meeting of librarians at St. Louis in 1904, to aid public librarians in American cities in selecting current books in foreign languages by the publication of select lists made up for this purpose by expert librarians in different countries, has now been realized in the case of Italian books by the publication in English of a small serial called "The Best Italian Reading," by Dr. Guido Biagi, director of the Laurentian Library, Florence, issued as a supplement to the *Revista delle Biblioteche e degli Archivi*. The first issue, treating only of reference books and history, contains twenty-five titles. Other classes of books will be taken up in subsequent numbers. Brief but helpful annotations in English are given for each title.

The Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh has at the Jamestown Exposition an interesting exhibit of the methods and appliances in operation at that library. As for several years this library has been known particularly for its specializations in children's work, the main interest of the exhibit attaches naturally to its showing of the details and results of this work. The following are some of the items of interest

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brought out in the prospectus of the exhibit: The library maintains 168 distributing centres from which children may draw books. These include 66 schools, 50 reading clubs, 29 "home libraries," 12 deposit stations, 6 branch libraries, 4 summer playgrounds, and 1 special children's room. The attendance in the various children's rooms last year was 322,239, and for the nine years that these rooms have been in operation the total attendance is 2,280,536. Last year the library circulated among children 376,559 volumes, and during nine years the circulation among children has reached a total of 2,125,660. In 1901, a school for the special training of children's librarians was instituted, the only one of its kind in the world. During the six years of its operation, it has sent out 70 skilled workers to fill positions in children's departments, and such has been the demand for these workers that many more positions could have been filled had the supply been sufficient.

The varied educational activities of a typical city library in Great Britain are well illustrated in the annual report of the Liverpool Public Library. Ten circulating branches with reading rooms are operated —in addition to a large central reference department. With a total stock of 280,000 volumes, there were issued during the year 1,362,000 volumes for home reading, and 1,410,444 for reference use, making a total of 2,773,436. This means an average of about ten issues for each book in the library, rarely if ever equalled in a library of its size. A feature of work much emphasized in this as in most other British libraries is the free lecture, covering all sorts of educational topics, designed specifically to introduce hearers to different classes of books in the library. During the year 178 such lectures were given in nineteen centres, with a total attendance of 97,426 persons. To these lectures much of the popularity of the library is attributed.

According to the British Museum Return for 1906, 246 books, mostly of German and Italian origin, printed before 1500 have recently been added; and, in addition, the Museum has, through gifts from Lord Strathcona, the Hon. Walter Rothschild, and others, received 158 works or editions hitherto unknown. The Museum has now, exclusive of duplicates, 9,088 books printed before 1500. During the year 28,498 volumes and pamphlets have been added to the library, and 64,977 parts of volumes, issues of periodicals, etc. The Department of Manuscripts has received two Greek papyrus rolls from Herculaneum, twenty papyri from the Egyptian Exploration Fund, two manuscripts of Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales," and a volume of English metrical romances dating from about 1400.

The crowding of Russian students, particularly Jewesses, into the Swiss universities has become so serious a problem that at a conference of Swiss university rectors, held recently in Lausanne, it was decided to make the entrance requirements so stringent as to exclude a large percentage of this element. Berne, in particular, has suffered, because this university has been especially liberal in admitting foreigners. As a consequence, its enrolment of Russian students in the summer semester just closed was 709, as compared with 614 during the preceding half-year. Of these 709, the women numbered 430. The authorities of the Zürich University took steps in this matter last year, with the result that its Jewish-Russian enrolment decreased by more than fifty in a single term.

The commission appointed to prepare the programme for the coming International Archæological Congress next spring in Cairo, has sent out from the Egyptian Museum of that city the preliminary announcement. The experience of the last congress, held in Athens in 1905, convinced the majority of the participants that the work had been too minutely divided. Accordingly, the next congress is to have only six groups: (1) Pre-classical Archæology; (2) Classical Archæology; (3) Papyrology; (4) Christian Archæology; (5) Numismatics and Geography; (6) Byzantine Archæology. This arrangement, however, does not meet with universal approval. The Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung*, for example, while expressing pleasure at the fact that the new science of papyrology has attained to the dignity of a separate section, regrets that Inscriptions has been assigned to a subordinate place; as also that Christian Archæology has not been united with Byzantine Archæology.

René François Armand Sully-Prudhomme, the French poet and critic, died suddenly September 7 at his villa, near Chatenay. He was born in Paris in 1839, the son of a merchant. After completing the courses in science and philosophy at the Lycée Bonaparte, he began work in the office of an ironmaster at Creusot. This employment he abandoned with the intention of entering the legal profession, and he actually began as a notary's clerk. But his inclinations were in the direction of literature; and in his twenty-sixth year he published his first volume, "Stances et Poèmes," which secured the enthusiastic recognition of Sainte-Beuve. One poem, in particular, "Le Vase Brisé," was singled out as a little masterpiece, equally noticeable for its exquisite finish and its delicacy of sentiment and style. Fortunately, a modest patrimony enabled him to devote himself to literary work without wholly depending on it for a livelihood. His second collection of verse, "Les Épreuves," appeared in 1866; in it he expressed the sadness of unbelief. Three years later followed "Les Solitudes" and his rhymed translation of the first book of Lucretius, "La Nature des Choses," in which he wrote a brilliant and widely discussed preface. "Impressions de Guerre" (1870) dealt with some of the phases of the Franco-Prussian War; "Les Destins" (1872) and "Vaines Tendresses" (1875) are of a more personal nature. These writings established his reputation as one of the most vigorous and exact of contemporary French writers, and one of the most distinguished for lofty sentiments and philosophic ideas. His first great philosophical poem, "La Justice," appeared in 1878, and to it he owed his election to the French Academy in 1881. In this poem he insisted upon the justice which he found in universal nature. His next work, "Le Prisme: Poésies Diverses," published in 1886, was a return to the more personal style. His best-known poems, however, and those on which his reputation most firmly rests, embodied idealized philosophical conceptions, such as solitude, justice, and happiness. "Le Bonheur," 1888, is a sort of vision of the progress of humanity toward the ideal state of supreme happiness. M. Sully-Prudhomme's "Testament Poétique," 1901, won the Nobel prize over such competitors as Ibsen, Tolstoy, Frédéric Mistral, Sienkiewicz, Ossip-Lourié, Hauptmann, Rostand, D'Annunzio, Freitag, and Echegaray. Although by no means a rich man, the poet devoted a considerable portion of the prize to establishing an annual award for excellence among the younger French poets. As a critic he published two volumes, "L'Expression dans les Beaux Arts" and "Reflexions sur l'Art des Vers." He wrote for the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, among other articles an important study of Pascal. For many years before his death, a sufferer from rheumatic gout, he had lived a quiet life in his country house.

NOTES ON TEXT BOOKS.

A revised edition of Myers's "General History," and "A Short History of Ancient Times," by the same author, extracted from the former work, are published by Ginn & Co. Mr. Myers's text books have long been popular with schoolmasters, and require no extended comment. The chief feature of these new editions is that they are brought up to recent investigations in early Oriental civilization. The same firm publishes "Outlines and Studies," by Florence Leadbetter, a series of brief notes and questions intended to be used with Myers's text books. These three books all belong to that class which aims at reducing history as nearly as possible to tabular statements, for the specific purpose of answering examination questions.

School histories of the United States still continue to be published with great regularity. Three recent ones are by Prof. J. B. McMaster (American Book Co.), R. L. Ashley (The Macmillan Co.), and Professor Prince (Scribner's). The first two are well illustrated and produced; the latter is very short, not illustrated, and aims at presenting a "bird's-eye view." None of these books is of exceptional merit, and a search for novel features discloses little beyond the fact that Professor Prince is rather more Southern in his views than his two competitors.

A successful English text book is the "History of England, for Use in Schools," by Arthur D. Innes (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons). The three volumes in which it previously appeared have now been united in one. The book is well supplied with outline maps, there are good summaries and tables, but illustrations are wanting. The standard of accuracy is reasonably good.

"Outlines of Roman History," by H. F. Pelham, Camden professor of ancient history at Oxford (G. P. Putnam's Sons), is well known from the previous editions. The new version differs from its predecessors chiefly in the larger space given to the history of the Flavian Emperors and of Trajan, to the annexation of territory beyoend the Rhine effected by the former, and to the Dacian and Parthian campaigns of the latter. Since Professor Pelham belongs to the school of Niebuhr and Mommsen, he is decidedly skeptical concerning the traditional account of Rome under the kings and

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in the early Republic. Yet, back of all this, he admits, lie genuinely ancient Roman beliefs which frequently afford a clue to the truth. He grants, for example, that a Sabine invasion of Rome took place in very early times, but argues that after all the Sabines exercised little, if any, influence upon the development of Rome. Since Professor Pelham holds such views concerning the early history, he is naturally able to carry us down to the beginning of the struggle with Carthage in 113 pages. Pages 201-512, more than half of the whole book, deal with the period which extends from the tribunate of the elder Gracchus (133 B. C.) to the death of Nero (69 A. D.). A book which gives in 600 pages a good general survey of the whole course of Roman history deserves at once a hearty welcome; when to such comprehensiveness are added scholarship of a high order and familiarity with modern writings on the subject matter as well as first-hand acquaintance with the ancient authorities, we have a highly valuable work. The numerous references in the footnotes to the authorities, ancient and modern, constitute a valuable feature. Four maps give the increasing extent of Rome territory in 486, 134, and 49 B. C., and in 69 A. D. A map of Roman territory in Trajan's time might, however, have been added, and the loss of Roman territory might well have been traced. The printing of this new edition seems to have been rather hasty; there are too many typographical errors, as Arcananians (for Acarnanians), Timacus (for Timæus), Ennius ap. Testum (for Ennius ap. Festum).

"A Source Book of Greek History," by F. M. Fling (D. C. Heath & Co.), is intended for high-school pupils, and presents a selection of extracts of Greek authors from Homer to Pausanias, which stand in the same relation to a narrative text on Greek history as photographs, casts, or originals do to a text-book on art, or citations from Greek literature to a text-book on that subject. Without such illustrations, the one would be an absurdity, and the other an insufferable bore. But is the same thing true of Greek history? Is the student to grasp the subject (for which, unfortunately, only the very briefest time is allowed in high schools), by using a fluent narration, such as that of Botsford, who merely refers to his sources, for the sake of those teachers who may have the time or spirit to consult them; or should he study the sources themselves, and so construct his own narrative as an independent investigator? The author is not sure. He prophesies that "by the majority of teachers these sources will probably be used as illustrative material." He may be quite sure, however, that practically all teachers who make use of the book at all will use it in this way. The critical study of sources, as a stimulus to which he has completed this book, is not for high school pupils, or even for college freshmen. It is for those maturer minds who are devoting particular attention to history. For such as these, whether student or teacher, this book is important. The knowledge of Greek itself has practically disappeared from our colleges, except in the narrow circle of the Greek department. And even here it is doubtful whether any but the most advanced would be able to sift out their sources, as it is done for them in this book. But for the ordinary student, whether of history, art, or literature, the narrative account is the only practical method of treatment, supplemented by suitable illustrative material. Moreover, narrative history does not to-day "take refuge behind the dogma of infallibility," for which Professor Fling seems to have conceived a needless fear; else it falls into immediate oblivion. With all that is ancient, of days in Grote, it is his splendid narrative, bulwarked by the ancillary props of source citations, that saves him; and the same is true of Gibbon. But Professor Fling will line up with students like Hicks and Hill, who, without making an attempt to reconstruct Greek history themselves, or beget in their students the critical attitude, content themselves with appending the illustrations necessary to make more vivid the facts that the narrative embodies.

What is needed more, perhaps, than anything else just now for the study of English, is a well-edited set of classics to take the place of the generally unsatisfactory run of reading-texts by prentice teachers, who have in many cases no better qualification for their task than an inordinate desire to advertise themselves. Such a model set of classics should be annotated for reading exclusively, and above all should be accompanied by first-rate critical introductions, to awake as far as possible the student's literary observation and judgment. To some extent Henry Holt & Co.'s English Readings conform to these specifications, although the individual volumes are of unequal merit. The latest addition to the series, in particular, "Selections from Addison," by Edward Bliss Reed, is distinctly inferior from the literary point of view to the best of its predecessors. The introductory essay on the "Writings of Addison" is by no means what one has a right to expect in this connection. It is meagre and inadequate, and shows too clearly the coldness and reserve of the day toward the writers of our Augustan period. In other respects, however, and particularly in comparison with the great mass of its kind, it makes a much better impression. At all events, it is as good a piece of work in its way as the year has produced. The selections are well made to exhibit Addison on his various sides; the notes are fair and without too much "scholastic" apparatus; while a general bibliography is in a way to supply the editor's own critical lapses.

Quite out of the dull and plodding way of ordinary text-books lies a new "Composition-Rhetoric," by T. C. Blaisdell (New York: American Book Co.). Not only is it a text-book with a style, though that would seem distinction enough in itself; but it aims directly at the creation of original literature within the unpromising pale of the classroom. "The aim of art is to convey feeling from one soul to another," says the author at the outset; and the remainder of the volume consists of an elaborate analysis of the means by which the soulful schoolboy may bring about this happy result. Among them appears such cryptic devices as "Mood Hints," "Visualization," "Word Meanings," "Environment," "Subordination." It is impossible to say exactly how many there are in all; for the author seems occasionally to have confounded his *procédés* with his *genres*, and such an effect as "atmosphere" appears rather incongruously foisted in between a chapter on "Book Reviews" and another on "The Prose Poem." The climax of the volume, however, is reserved for chapter xviii., "Literature: a Definition," in which the writer, gathering up his resources, arrives at a sort of universal formula or recipe, so simple, so illuminating, that it can hardly fail to commend itself to the veriest little Philistine that ever bit a lead pencil:

> The artist finds himself tingling with inspiration. This feeling clamors for expression. He applies chisel to marble, brush to canvas, bow to strings, or pen to paper, and the world is richer by a masterpiece.

What could be easier? With every tingling schoolboy transmuting his experiences into the refined gold of art through the medium of Mr. Blaisdell's "literary touch," what abundance of intellectual riches may we not hope soon to possess!

There is much that is obvious in Miss Albright's book, "The Short Story, its Principles and Structure" (The Macmillan Co.); but such a result is probably unavoidable, if matters of the sort are to be seriously studied. Provided the student of English is to be exercised in original literary construction as distinguished from the mere practice of language, such a form as the short story furnishes no doubt as good a discipline in composition as any other literary *genre*. In such a case Miss Albright's book is likely to have its uses. Though there is the usual inevitable tendency to create a special terminology about the subject by the use of manufactured terms and phrases, yet on the whole the great merit of the volume consists in the fact that it does not reduce the story to a single inflexible formula. "The analysis of literary effects into mechanical devices is always arbitrary and, in a sense, profitless," says Miss Albright justly enough; though as a matter of fact it may be doubted whether the text-book can possibly do more for the student. Indeed, the sentence contains a kind of condemnation of the whole ulterior aim of the writer. For what after all is the advantage of encouraging the production of a merely imitative and second-hand literature of which we have altogether too much already? It is to the reader rather than the writer that such a book is really useful, and to the former it may be mentioned as a more or less flexible and suggestive discussion of a topic whose importance is rather exaggerated at present.

In "An Anthology of German Literature," Professor Calvin Thomas, long and favorably known as a student of modern German, adds another volume of value to the library of German. The work is intended to give in compact form and modern German an intelligent idea of German literature of the early centuries. Max Müller edited two volumes of the German classics to accompany Scherer's history of German literature; but Müller is compendious and his chips are all from original German blocks. Professor Thomas feels that to make friends for mediæval German poetry he must provide a text that can be used by those who never studied, or may never care to study, Old or Middle German, and he must select only those specimens that show the literature in its strength and beauty. Although students seldom agree as to just what should be included in an anthology, these selections indubitably show taste and judgment. Whenever he could not

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find a good translation of the text he wished to present, Professor Thomas has made an excellent one himself. About half of the translations he gleaned from Bötticher, Behringer, Simrock, and others. Doubtless considerations of space as well as the aim to make the book an aid to literary, rather than linguistic study, excluded original texts, but there are many who will wish that here and there an extract had been given, to suggest the *Geschmack* of the old and strange. It is to be hoped that both Professor Thomas and the publishers, D. C. Heath & Co., will be encouraged to follow up this first volume with one or two more, bringing the German literature down to date.

In "A German Science Reader," prepared by Dr. William H. Wait (The Macmillan Co.), the selections have been taken from the works of German specialists, and have been so grouped as to form masses of related reading, giving to students in several fields fifty or more pages of matter that they may well absorb for the content, and that in style and vocabulary will suggest the German investigator in his laboratory. Limited but essential notes accompany the text, and there is a complete vocabulary. The book will be of value especially to students of science, who often find themselves miserably at sea because their hard-won vocabulary of the poets does not help them in reading the works of chemist and physicist. Inasmuch, however, as all scientific matter is not printed in the Latin letter, it would seem better if a few pages of this German reader had been set in German type.

Joseph Wright is editor of a student's series of historical and comparative grammars in English, published by Henry Frowde. Mr. Wright himself, who has had a free hand since the completion of his contribution to the "English Dialect Dictionary," undertakes the first volume, an "Historical German Grammar," and a thorough piece of work it is, with its index of 4,000 words. The book will meet the wants of the steadily increasing number of people who take a real interest in the scientific study of language. Of course, no one ignorant of modern German can get much out of this historical grammar, but while its use presupposes an acquaintance with the later forms, the indefatigable labors of the compiler render a knowledge of Old or Middle German unnecessary.

Those who prefer a combined reader and drill book like Lange's "German Method" will no doubt welcome Dr. Paul V. Bacon's "German Grammar" (Boston: Allyn & Bacon). It is not, however, a reference grammar, and can never take the place of either Thomas or Joynes-Meissner. Some fourteen pages are devoted to the alphabet, vowels, and consonants; and ninety-seven pages of prose and poetry—from Goethe, Heine, Uhland, and others—are followed by 320 pages of syntax. Considerable pains have been taken to give a vocabulary of grammatical terms, such as the German for "vowel," "pronoun," "gender," "accusative," etc., but almost no provision is made in the German sentences for using the words and idioms thus required. Typographically, the book is all that could be desired.

D. C. Heath & Co.'s "German Lesson Grammar," by Dr. Edward S. Joynes of the University of South Carolina, should prove of little less value than his well-known Joynes-Meissner. Professor Joynes has been assisted by Prof. E. C. Wesselhoeft of the University of Pennsylvania. Inasmuch as the method of this new German grammar is already more or less represented in the Joynes-Meissner, it might puzzle the critic as to why another grammar had been attempted; the authors, however, seem to have aimed at opening a middle path between the lesson book on the one hand and the rigidly systematic grammar on the other.

Dr. Carl Edgar Eggert of the University of Michigan has edited for publication by Henry Holt & Co. Conrad Ferdinand Meyer's "Der Heilige," giving notes and a rather extensive biographical and critical introduction. There is a bibliography of German, English, and French works pertaining to Meyer, and also a spectacled portrait of the story-teller.

Ludwig Fulda's growing popularity in America should pave the way for a hearty reception of "Das verlorene Paradies" (Ginn & Co.), edited by Prof. Paul H. Grummann, under authority from Fulda and Heinrich Conried, the American owner of the play. Fulda's plays are particularly rich in colloquial German, and Professor Grummann has profited by the opportunity to provide some twenty-six pages of *Fragen* for the discussion of the text in German. There is an introduction, in which the editor points out what he believes to be the influence of Sudermann, rather than Hauptmann, upon Fulda.

Dr. R. Clyde Ford of the Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti, has edited Sudermann's "Teja" for D. C. Heath & Co. As a one-act historical drama (first appearing eleven years ago as part of "Morituri") "Teja" has deserved the favor shown it at home and abroad. A biographical sketch based on Kawerau and Meyer, and a brief history of the Goths in Italy, should make the book serviceable to beginners.

"Lessons in French Syntax and Composition" (Henry Holt & Co.) is an attractive little volume of 178 pages devised by W. U. Vreeland and William Koren of Princeton, who believe in brief doses of syntax, plenty of idiomatic phraseology, and a direct application of the principles of syntax. The sentences are not connected discourse, and the subject matter is not all French, but there is compensation in the attempt to prevent mechanical translations.

The "Elementary French" of Fred Davis Aldrich of Worcester Academy, and Prof. Irving Lysander Foster of the Pennsylvania State College, is expanded from "Foundations of French"; and the logical arrangement of topics in the original has been retained, while a greater variety of exercises and full vocabularies have been added. An effort is made to secure unity and system by grouping the lessons around a common topic, such as the verb, the pronoun, etc. Whether the placing of the phonetic reproduction of the earlier portions of the French text in a remote appendix is as good a plan as giving some phonetic transliteration in the early pages themselves is an open question, but the student will find a concise and useful outline of elementary French inflection and syntax in a syllabus of questions and answers by Prof. Roscoe J. Ham of Bowdoin College. The book is published by Ginn & Co.

Dictation has long been a part of the French public school system in the teaching of language, and it is surprising that such a work as Mary Stone Bruce's "Dictées Françaises" (D. C. Heath & Co.) should have been so long in appearing. The book has forty-six pages, divided into simple anecdotes from four to fifteen lines in length, sentences to illustrate agreement or non-agreement of past participles, well-known proverbs with English equivalents, and quotations from distinguished French writers.

Judged by the several issues of the Oxford Modern French Series (Henry Frowde), edited by Léon Delbos, which have already appeared, the new undertaking is full of promise. The editor has little use for the "natural" or "direct" methods of teaching, at least in so far as they have laid too much emphasis on the study of modern tongues for utilitarian ends, and he is plainspoken in his advocacy of the study of languages in order to appreciate the literatures they convey. The texts thus far chosen are Balzac's "Le Colonel Chabert," edited by H. W. Preston; De Bourrienne's "La Jeunesse de Bonaparte," edited by A. Canivet; and Michelet's "Louis XI." and "Charles le Téméraire," edited by E. Renault. The volumes are among the best-printed and best-bound school books put on the American market by British publishers. The introductions are short, and in concise, clear English, with none of the marks of a German laboratory. The notes are literary and historical, seldom grammatical, and there are no vocabularies. An equally well-made edition of Balzac's "Pierrette," edited by Theodora de Sélincourt, of Somerville College, Oxford, also comes from the Clarendon Press, being one of the first of a more advanced series, and supervised also by Léon Delbos. Elementary matters are passed over in the notes, and only the most interesting points are treated. A portrait of Balzac, supposed to represent him at the time he wrote "Pierrette," is given. A companion volume from the Clarendon Press is Sand's "Jeanne," edited by Cécile Hugon of Oxford, and having an old-time print of Sand. Besides a critical introduction, there is a biographical note.

There is no over-done introduction to Prof. R. L. Sanderson's "Le Père Goriot," by Balzac (D. C. Heath & Co.), for there are only 32 pages of notes for 327 of text, but what has been done is well done. There is a bibliography, without, however, one work in English, and the questions arise whether every student equipped for Balzac is able to handle reference French easily, and whether every college library possesses most of the reference volumes listed.

Alexandre Dumas's "Le Chevalier de Maison-Rouge," one of the most powerful works of fiction dealing with the French Revolution, has been abridged and edited with notes and vocabulary by L. Sauveur and E. S. Jones of the Allen School of West Newton (American Book Co.). In their preface they endeavor to answer the questions, "Is the Chevalier de Maison-Rouge an historical personage? Did he ever exist?" They review the labors of the enthusiastic investigator, M. G. Lenôtre.

Prof. George N. Henning's "Polyeucte, Martyr," by Corneille, is a modest little volume (Ginn & Co.), but it contains sev-

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eral features out of the ordinary. There is an introduction discussing the tragedy before Corneille, Corneille and his contemporaries, the religious drama, "Polyeucte. Tragédie Chrétienne," the sources and historical elements, the dramatic structure, characters, and literary value. Then, in addition to a bibliographical note and about thirty-five pages of annotation, there is an appendix presenting forty subjects for composition in French, a note on the tercentenary celebration of Corneille's birth, and a series of jottings made at the Comédie Française, June 10, 1906, offered as an aid to visualize the play.

Henry Holt & Co. issue "Le Cid, Horace, and Polyeucte," by Corneille, edited with an introduction by Prof. William A. Nitze of Amherst, assisted by Stanley L. Galpin, who has supplied the notes. There is no vocabulary. The volume is really a companion to Professor Warren's "Racine," with which it agrees in plan and arrangement; and it is probably because the study of Corneille necessarily precedes that of Racine that the general introduction to the former has been made so full (xxvii. pp.).

In Jean Rotrou's "Saint Genest and Venceslas," edited for Ginn & Co., with an introduction and notes by Prof. Thomas Frederick Crane of Cornell, we have the first edition of any work of Rotrou's ever published outside of France, although Rotrou may well be mentioned after Corneille and Racine in French literature of the seventeenth century. Rotrou seems to have imitated Corneille in his "Polyeucte," and this stimulates the curiosity of the reader. The two plays being based upon Spanish ones, and Spanish being now so generally studied, Professor Crane gives copious extracts from Rotrou's sources, in the hope of awakening an interest in the Spanish drama of the same century. The volume contains an introduction of 135 pages, a bibliography, and two indexes, making in all a scholarly work.

Racine's "Les Plaideurs" (D. C. Heath & Co.) finds sympathetic treatment at the hands of Prof. Charles H. Conrad Wright of Harvard, who begins his introduction with a compact chronology of Racine's life. There is a summary of all three acts, which should readily give the reader his bearings—one of those guide-posts that might well accompany every play or story edited for class use—and notes, interspersed with frequent quotations in English. There is no vocabulary.

The revival of the study of Spanish in America is marked by several new publications. There is a "Spanish Reader," edited by Dr. Carlos Bransby of the University of California (D. C. Heath & Co.), who has tried to meet the wants of the beginner and the more advanced student by arranging progressively short and easy anecdotes and stories from the classics. This selection of sketches has enabled the editor to introduce much useful information regarding the geography, history, manners, and customs of Spain. There are several hundred specimen questions for conversation and sentences for prose composition based on the first three stories.

Another work from Heath's press is "Cuentos Alegres," by Luis Taboada, whose facile pen ceased to move only last year. Taboada was successively a government clerk, a playwright, and a satirical journalist. The editor of this book, Murray Anthony Potter of Harvard, has done wisely in selecting those narratives that place the American student face to face with life and types met with in Spanish streets, government bureaus, humble households, and cheap boarding-houses, for therein Taboada is at his best.

More advanced and heavier reading, but nevertheless a story full of Spanish atmosphere, is "El Sombrero de tres Picos," by D. Pedro A. de Alarcón, which Prof. Benjamin P. Bourland of Adelbert College has edited, from the thirteenth Spanish edition, with commentary and glossary (Henry Holt & Co.) This story first appeared in 1874, and one has but to read its admirable dialogue and note the skill of construction to understand its enduring popularity and its high rank as one of the best two works of the struggling Alarcón.

The same author's popularity is further attested in nine or ten stories grouped together by Prof. W. F. Giese of the University of Wisconsin, under the title "Novelas Cortas" (Ginn & Co.), and accompanied by a frontispiece portrait. A vocabulary is supplemented by notes, and there is a novel idiomatic commentary, designed to encourage the student to observe and commit to memory certain expressions peculiar to everyday Spanish.

"Principles of Secondary Education," by Prof. Charles DeGarmo of Cornell University (The Macmillan Company), is the first of two volumes which aim to present in a systematic way the fundamental principles of American secondary education. The present volume is devoted to the curriculum. The studies are classified into convenient groups, and the function and the relative educational value of each group and each study are discussed. Upon the basis of this analysis the author endeavors to find the best possible combination of studies for the various curricula which our complex modern society demands. Curiously enough, considering the wide extension of secondary education in this country, this is the first effort to present in any complete or comprehensive form the principles which should underlie it. It is a fact that the teaching in the average secondary school is less efficient than in the elementary; and this in spite of the fact that most secondary school teachers have a much better equipment of education. They are, however, generally specialists along some narrow line. They know their own subject matter; but they know little and concern themselves less with the place which their subject should have in the general scheme of secondary education, with its relation to the other parts of the curriculum, and with the aims in teaching it. The provision which our colleges and universities are now more and more making for furnishing professional training for prospective teachers in secondary schools, similar to that which the normal schools furnish to teachers in the elementary schools, is encouraging to those who are interested in American education. Professor DeGarmo's book, which is designed as a text-book for students of secondary education, is a welcome addition to the increasing facilities for this special training.

"Methods in Teaching," by Rosa V. Winterburn (The Macmillan Co.), furnishes in some detail an exposition of the methods employed in the public schools of Stockton, Cal. The book grew out of a series of monographs on the various subjects of the curriculum accompanying the exhibit made by the Stockton schools at the St. Louis Exposition. It has the merit of telling in a clear, definite way just what is being done in each grade and in each subject in an admittedly good system of schools. It is a record of experience, of the deductions made by a body of practical teachers working together for a considerable period. As such, it is of value—of greater value perhaps to many teachers than a more profound statement of theoretical pedagogy. While the work does not contain anything that is especially new or original, it is thoroughly sane and is in harmony with the most rational ideals of present-day educational thought. English teaching forms the subject of about one-third of the book.

CURRENT FICTION.

2835 Mayfair. By Frank Richardson. New York: Brentano's.

It is interesting to discover from the press notices prefixed to this book that Frank Richardson is not only, according to Clement K. Shorter, "the eminent publicist and profound thinker," but, by the testimony of other authorities, is "the satirist of the hour," "the eminent whisker-expert," and "the wittiest of all Anglo-American authors." The third-named of these characterizations happily throws light upon the otherwise cryptic "Notice to the Reader," which prefaces the narrative: "This work does not deal to any great extent with the subject of whiskers. Certain concessions, however, have been made for the benefit of persons interested in the topic." What follows would be called, we suppose, a psychological extravaganza. A noted London physician conceives the idea of so merging his personality with that of some woman as to become in effect a woman. Three days in the week he is himself in his own body; and three days he is a feminine version of himself in the body of his victim. The Mayfair house connects by a secret passage with a house in another street where dwells (three days at a time) "Miss Clive," his beautiful and brilliant feminine embodiment. The body which is not in commission is locked in a cabinet of which the active body keeps the key. He becomes fascinated with the experiment, and keeps it up much longer than he has at first intended, the woman of him becoming engaged in a love affair with his best friend. Eventually, "Miss Clive" is the victim of a serious accident, and the masculine body, not being released in time, perishes. Follows a revelation of the facts to the astonished and not altogether delighted friend and lover. She (or he) is, on the whole, content to be a woman. "I have come out of it very well," she says reflectively. "I have only lost a leg, and . . . Miss Mingey's soul—which was scarcely an asset." This cheerful theme is developed and embroidered upon with much careless and apparently spontaneous humor.

Clem. By Edna Kenton. New York: The Century Co.

"Clem" is a story recognizably Jacobite in manner, and indeed in method. The heroine is a young barbarian cast into the

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midst of a group of sophisticated and, with all their amenity, rather ineffective persons. She has innocently got herself engaged to the boy of them, and becomes the subject of a disciplinary experiment on the part of his mother. She becomes, that is, a member of a very select house party, and is presently made to feel that what these people have and she has not forms an insuperable obstacle not only to her taking up a new life with them, but to a resumption of the old one on the old terms. Their ways are not her ways; their talk, "subtle and polished, filled with brilliant hiatus," half allures, half affronts her:

Sometimes she felt all but smothered in the webs of verbal finesse which this sort of people wound skilfully, delightfully, yet so futilely, it seemed to her, about trivial happenings and worse than trivial emotions. No motive seemed simple any longer; double after double was presented to fleeting view, and was then buried beneath some light shaft of wit as an inconsequent thing, over which it was absurd to spend further time.

Clem herself has been reared in a very different, and indeed a most unpromising atmosphere. Her mother was a third-rate actress who eventually went the way of her kind; her father was a financial adventurer who did not "make his pile" till the girl had passed her teens. Some smattering of education she picks up thereafter: a little French, a little music, hardly more. She has beautiful clothes and jewels, and is surrounded by men wherever she goes, since she is herself beautiful and has the charms of perfect spontaneity and unassailable good humor. She cares little for women or for the formal society which is the invention of women. Her experience among this group of well-bred people cruelly embarrasses not so much her pride as her sense of the harmony and desirableness of things. But whatever is finest and strongest in her own nature comes through unscathed. She, rather than the boy lover, the cold hostess, the middle-aged gentleman adorer, is really magnanimous, really human. Inevitably her path converges with that of the only man of her acquaintance—even more man than gentleman—who is worthy of her. Let her be slangy, let her be conspicuous, let her be socially improbable or impossible, there is yet something in her to justify the homage of the man who becomes her mate. "She looked the primitive woman," he says at the beginning of the story, ignoring a feminine slur; "she might have been the primeval woman walking untrodden sands, pressing the springing earth when the world was young."

The Serf. By Guy Thorne. New York: R. F. Fenno & Co.

This book, dedicated to the members of the National Liberal Club, is written with a certain animus which differentiates it from the merely literary historical fiction of the day. The author seeks deliberately to strip the tinsel glories from mediæval romance, and to paint feudal society for us as it really was. He has a decided theory of history:

The only certain way in which it is possible to get at the inner meaning of a period of history, is by comparison of the attitude of an individual brain toward his time, and the attitude of a general type of brain. The individual with the point of view must, of course, be a known quantity.

Our enthusiast goes on to say that this is a method of extraordinary possibilities, concluding somewhat quaintly: "It combines the pleasures of the laboratory with the pleasures of psychology, and never was Science so happily wedded to Art." The point is that we are to study the feudal institution through the eyes of a single serf, a man of natural nobility and form.

Having just finished reading a feudal romance *à-la-mode*, full of mediæval lingo lugged in for effect, and with an atmosphere obviously as false as fair, the present reviewer rubbed his eyes incredulously after a few pages of this forthright narrative. Realism and the middle ages had seemed as far asunder as the poles; yet here they met, or seemed to meet. The author has had, no doubt, his own romantic impulse; to celebrate those humble and forgotten masses who have been at best the footstools of all accredited mediæval heroes and heroines. He frequently leaves the straight path of his narrative in order to preach a modern doctrine of brotherhood. But what strikes one most is his ruthlessness in presenting the sordid and distressing aspects of the life of the mediæval baron. It was, he declares, "a bestial, malignant, inhuman time." Brutal manners and filthy habits of living were common to the aristocracy and the herd. "A dog-kennel would hardly have suffered any one of our heroes and heroines. That is one reason why it is so difficult for the veracious historian to present his characters as they really were. It is hard to explain them, people are too accustomed to romance." Apart from its didactic quality the story has a good deal of force; Hyia the serf and his fortunes are worth following for their own sake.

The Old Home House. By Joseph C. Lincoln. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

In these entertaining yarns Mr. Lincoln succeeds in expressing the true salt humor of the Cape-Codder. His skippers have not quite the reality of Mr. Wasson's Down East worthies; or rather have not their innocent indigenous quality. And, indeed, it is hard nowadays to find a Cap'n Jonadab or a Cap'n Barzilla on the Cape whose bloom has not been more or less rubbed off by contact with the accursed summer boarder. The 'longshore skipper who spins these yarns has long since ceased to skip, except as an incident in his chosen trade of "amputating the bank accounts of the city folks"; and city folks, in their appointed part of victim, really constitute the burden of his song. The mutual relation between native and "summerer" is sufficiently pregnant with a humor which the present writer has happily expressed. It is not surprising that the book has run into several editions in the course of a month or two.

Biographical Sketches of the Graduates of Yale College, with Annals of the College History. Vol. IV. July, 1778—June, 1792. By Franklin Bowditch Dexter. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $5.

Under a modest title, this volume contains a mass of important historical and genealogical matter, clearly and pleasantly presented. Professor Dexter is well fitted for the work by an exquisite habit of accuracy, which makes men of experience hesitate to question any of his statements, by a sense of proportion, and by a memory which has aroused the wonder of many college generations. He has been in the service of Yale University longer than any other officer of the institution, and his offices of secretary, professor of American history, and assistant librarian, have all aided him in these researches. The first volume of this work was published in 1885—the very year in which appeared the third and last volume of Sibley's "Harvard Graduates." Mr. Sibley's work doubtless suggested Mr. Dexter's; the form, as well as the plan, is nearly the same, though the biographical sketches now before us are rather more condensed, allowing on the average only about a page and a half to each graduate. Professor Dexter is more fortunate than Mr. Sibley, in that the latter lived only to bring his work down to the graduates of 1689, and no successor has been found for his task, while Professor Dexter is within sight of the completion of his work, and is younger now than Mr. Sibley was when he published his first volume.

The fifth volume, the preface tells us, will include classes from 1792 to 1805. The gap which remains between these "Biographies" on the one hand, and "Obituary Records" (published annually since 1860) and modern "Class-books" on the other hand, is not very broad. Two members of the Yale class of 1797 published half a century after graduation a thin volume of biographical sketches of their classmates, and this has had many successors. The first published "Obituary Record," prepared for the Yale alumni meeting in July, 1860, opens with a sketch of the life of the Rev. T. M. Cooley, who was a member of the class of 1792, and thus almost admitted to the volume before us. Mr. Dexter's work has now reached a period where family traditions and papers are fairly abundant. For example, three children of a member of the class of 1787 are now alive, the son being himself an honored graduate of the class of 1836.

The years included in this fourth volume are the first of President Stiles's administration, a period particularly familiar to Mr. Dexter, as the editor of Dr. Stiles's voluminous "Literary Diary." The learned president clearly had the confidence of the community, and Yale was then the largest college of the country, as, indeed, it continued to be through most of the first two-thirds of the nineteenth century. The numbers varied curiously. In 1785, 70 were graduated at Yale, and only 32 at Harvard; but in 1790, only 24 were graduated at Yale, and 42 at Harvard. The total number of graduates in these fourteen years, however, was distinctly larger at Yale. The beginning of President Stiles's administration was in troublous times. For six years no public commencement was held. In the year 1778-79, the winter vacation, "instead of covering the usual three weeks, continued for seven weeks and a half, on account of the difficulty of obtaining flour and other provisions for the supply of the College Commons." In July of the same year, the British troops landed in the suburbs of New Haven. The students were dismissed,

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and although a company of them assisted in checking the British advance, they were not assembled again for study, and lost about two months of the college year. The first sketch of this volume is of Joel Barlow, author of "The Vision of Columbus," "The Hasty Pudding," and important political works, and United States minister to France at a critical time. Many other familiar names meet the eye as one turns the pages—Jeremiah Mason, Abiel Holmes (father of the poet), Joshua Meigs, Noah Webster, Jedidiah Morse, Judge Lyman of Northampton, Judge Gould of the Litchfield Law School, the Rev. Joseph Badger, Chancellor Kent of the "Commentaries," Edward Dorr Griffin, Peter B. Porter of Niagara Falls, and so on. In one class, that of 1785, were Samuel Huntington and Return Jonathan Meigs, each of whom, in turn, was first chief justice and then Governor of Ohio. Indeed, this volume bears abundant evidence of the close relations between Connecticut and the Western settlements, and families in the Central States will find a personal interest in it. Of the 543 graduates here included, 443 were born in Connecticut, but only 256 of the class made their home there; the rest went West or South. College men a century ago were not so plentiful that their light was to be hid under a bushel, but when we think how many of our college acquaintances disappear and are not to be found by even the most persistent class secretaries, we may well wonder that Mr. Dexter has had to confess himself wholly foiled in only two of the 543 Yale graduates between 1778 and 1792. Both of these men came from Dartmouth College, near the close of their course, and evidently did not long continue their relations with Yale. In spite of the large number of persons who inspire no special interest, Mr. Dexter's style does not become perfunctory, but justifies the degree of doctor of letters which Yale conferred upon him at her bicentennial.

The "Annals" of Yale College between 1778 and 1792 contain little of importance. The steward's detailed bills for commencement dinners are interesting for the information which they give, and for the comparison of prices with those of our own day. Fowls at ten shillings a dozen do not seem expensive. Two delightful extracts are given from a letter and a journal of freshmen, in 1781, and in 1790, affording glimpses of their daily routine of college life. The bell rang for morning prayers at half-past five o'clock, but the reader is relieved to learn that (if not presented too often) excuses were accepted, such as *non audivi campanam, habui amicum,* or *habui speciale negotium.* Manasseh Cutler, in 1785, just before he was occupied with organizing companies for the settlement of the Northwest Territory, visited Yale, and set down in his diary an interesting account—here given—of the college and New Haven, comparing both with their condition at his graduation in 1765.

Yale College is happy in having such a historiographer as Professor Dexter. His work is of more than local interest and is valued by all who care for New England history and genealogy.

A Book of the Pyrenees. By S. Baring-Gould. With twenty-five illustrations. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50 net.

Through Portugal. By Martin Hume. With thirty-two illustrations in color, by A. S. Forrest. New York: McClure, Phillips & Co.

Rarely is a book of this kind so fascinating as Mr. Baring-Gould's. It is brimful of facts, historical and otherwise, yet not a bit prosaic or dry. It indulges in none of those rapturous descriptions which carry in their very superlative a warning of disappointment to the reader who proposes to follow the author's footsteps. On the contrary, a quiet charm lies over every landscape. One is sure that this charm of the book is also that of the country. Moreover, there is none of the personal experience, the attempt to tell the traveller how he ought to feel when he himself shall stand before the shrines of Pyrenean nature and history, which give to so many books of travel the disagreeable features of the "personally-conducted" tour. There is absolutely no pretension to fine writing. The wonderful histories of Bearn and Navarre, Gascony and Rousillon, open naturally before one like the valleys of their mountains, and the intrinsic interest of both leads one on through a wealth of anecdote and story to a real familiarity with the region and those who have made it famous—that familiarity which comes from the reading of old French chronicles and memoirs, but rarely from the standard history. It is refreshing to find an author who so credits his readers with imagination.

Mr. Baring-Gould does not belong to the guild of those who, having discovered a country which everybody knows, feel bound to record a personal impression. Those who know the Pyrenees will be inclined to say as they turn the pages that they know them less well than the author. In the approach from Bayonne one takes his hand with confidence, and parts company with him regretfully at Perpignan. Naturally, we journey along the northern slopes, for Spain has not yet made the southern valleys inviting to those in search of rest or pleasure; but so far as history and romance are concerned, the author's survey embraces both sides of the chain, and he occasionally crosses the watershed into Spanish territory. There are chapters on Gascony, Bayonne, Orthez, and Pau, Oloron, the Lavedan, Luz, and Tarbes, Bagnères, Luchon, Couserans, and Foix, the valleys of Ossau and Aure, and an interesting account of the origin and growth of the Lourdes legend. The book can be heartily commended both to those who travel and those who stay at home. If one must find a fault at all hazards, it will certainly be with the map, which is a mere sketch, noting not the tenth of the places touched upon, and therefore wholly inadequate for reference.

Major Hume, the editor of Spanish State Papers, and author of "Philip II.," "The Year after the Armada," "Spain, its Greatness and Decay," etc., etc., was educated in Madrid, where branches of his family have long resided, and where it seems he imbibed the Spanish prejudice against things Portuguese, for he tells us in the preface of "Through Portugal" that he "had been brought up in the stiff Castilian tradition that Portugal was altogether an inferior country, and the Portuguese uncouth boors who in their separation from their Spanish kinsmen had left to the latter all the virtues, while they themselves had retained all the vices of the race." Having chosen Portugal, however, in the search for change and health, after seeing with his own eyes he declares his book "my apologia as a self-prescribed penance for my former injustice toward the most beautiful country and the most unspoilt and courteous peasantry of Southern Europe." Those to whom Portugal is unknown, or for whom it means only Oporto and Lisbon, may challenge this statement, but certainly not those who know the interior of the country. Where in Europe, indeed, can be found a lovelier spot than Bussaco? A hotel built for a royal residence, in the Crown domain, six miles in circumference, formerly belonging to the Carmelites, bowered in a wood of palms, Lebanon cedars, oaks, oranges, acacia, cork, and fig trees, the most luxuriant forest on the continent, if not anywhere outside of Brazil. The author's description of this retreat, which two hundred years of monkish care have made famous for the rare trees and plants sent by the Carmelite brethren from wherever the flag of Portugal once waved, and of the views from its cloistered terrace, makes one feverish for instant travel. The truth is, only the inaccessibility of Portugal can explain its neglect. It is difficult to reach, and, being on the road to nowhere, is difficult to leave—a true *cul-de-sac.* Yet the hill towns of Italy surpass only in their art treasures this land of hill-top strongholds.

Thomar, with its castle-monastery of the crusading knights of the Order of Christ; Leira, overshadowed by its cyclopean mediæval fortress and Sanctuary of the Incarnation; Batalha, Alcobaça, Cintra, Selubal, Troya, and Evora—each is embosomed in scenery of unsurpassed beauty and contains objects of genuine artistic and antiquarian interest. Unlike the "Book of the Pyrenees," "Through Portugal" is the record of personal impressions. Its first word is the personal pronoun. It ought to be a revelation to those who know Portugal only from a guide book, or who think of it only as an unimportant strip of seashore to be neglected for royal Spain. Major Hume has succeeded in passing on to one reader at least the enjoyment of an appreciative traveller. The attractiveness of the book is greatly enhanced by a series of thirty-two charming illustrations in color, and closes with an excellent chapter of practical hints.

Poesie raccolta completa con note e glossario. By Salvatore Di Giacomo. Naples: R. Ricciardi.

It is doubtful whether dialect prose and verse, however admirable, can ever claim admittance on an equal footing with literature of a national tongue. Notwithstanding the natural directness and spontaneity of dialects in general, few or none out of the scores which to-day are being used as channels of literary effort can satisfactorily meet the reasonable tests of charm, conciseness, and eloquence capable of enduring beyond the local enthusiasms of the

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hour. Of the Neapolitan dialect one need say only enough to make intelligible a brief notice of what is perhaps the most important volume of Neapolitan poems ever published.

Prof. B. Croce, authority on all matters Neapolitan, tells us that formal literature in the dialect of Naples dates from the beginning of the seventeenth century. Before this period, sporadic fragments occur here and there. For example, we have various bits of prose dating from the earliest part of the Arogonese usurpation of southern Italy; and there are not a few poems of slight importance printed in this dialect. Obviously there were Neapolitan poems and folk songs in great number which have never been printed and of which only the bare influence and tradition exist. Unless we know them on their own ground we find it difficult to understand how stubbornly even such serious and intelligent people as the Piedmontese, for instance, cling to their dialect in face of all national feeling. We recall how Cavour himself to the day of his death in addresses preferred French to his clumsy Italian. Now the Neapolitans, who are much the most un-Italian of all the provincials, hold to their dialect with insistent fondness; and not only in conversation but in their plays and reading care solely for their vernacular idiom. Moreover, there are those who doubt whether, with the possible exception of Provençal, one can find any dialect so completely convincing and melodious as Neapolitan. We must judge this not upon any superficial experience of listening to street traffickers; for, indeed, we are not so apt to find pure Neapolitan in Naples as in such outlying towns as Nola. There we are far less confused by the interpolations which always creep into the lower class idiom of large seaports.

The Neapolitan of to-day is a strange conglomeration of mixed Levantine types. His is a voluptuous nature, replete with cozenry, superstition, pornographic vulgarity, smallness in scandal-mongering, and a thousand petty traits. But despite the repulsive grotesqueness of these native humors, there is a persistent vein of poetry, a liveliness and dashing wit that go far toward reconciling us to this composite character, especially on the printed page. One reason, perhaps the chief one, for our unqualified admiration of the volume before us, is that, besides his abundant qualifications, both in technical skill and inspiration, Di Giacomo is a highly representative Neapolitan; that is, although of an upper middle class family, he is thoroughly imbued with the spirit dominating the poetry and prose of the infinite subclasses all the way from the fisherman (by day scudding over his matchless domain, the Bay of Naples, by night steering his craft among the shoals off Posilipo) to the stripling novitiate in the monastery on the hill, whose craving for the freedom of his secular days often comes near to toppling over his vows. Di Giacomo knows them all, has been with them and of them his life long. He sympathizes with them as only an unpatrician poet may do. But in addition to this, he enjoys the advantage of such long acquaintance with lettered people that his sensitiveness is tempered with a juster sense of perspective than is given to such of his most popular followers as F. Russo and the host of young writers of Neapolitan songs.

Born in Naples in 1862, Di Giacomo began his career by contributing poems in dialect to the local newspapers. From time to time they have been gathered into little volumes which pass from one edition to another far more rapidly than do the several prose works from his pen, some of which exist in French and German translations. His verse is quite untranslatable. Even in Italian it loses the marvellous aroma of the original. Is this in itself not the strongest superficial proof of its excellence? Italian authors of repute detest Neapolitans as *a thriftless band of erotic lotus eaters*; and yet they have nothing but praise for these poems of Di Giacomo which so perfectly mirror the Neapolitan spirit, and in such wise as to draw rather than repel one's sympathies.

In the main this collection consists of love lyrics, many of which have for years been sung on the streets and in coffee houses where the popular music of Naples is most in vogue. But they are not all of this sort. There is an amazing range of theme, comprising countless rhapsodic though faithful vizualizations of the life of the Neapolitan in all its multitudinous phases. Besides the note of intimacy running through his poems, there is a tone of sincerity which would have given the volume, in the eyes of such a critic as Taine, a value quite incalculable for its documentary importance, its evidence as to the kind of folk the Neapolitans are and are ever like to be.

Although intuitively so accurate and minute a summarist of the life of Naples in detail and in the aggregate, although so supersensitive to the scenic exquisiteness of sea and sky and land to the feelings of the scene—despite all this it is not as themselves forming a significant component of the scene—despite all this it is not as a historian of local manners and customs that Di Giacomo appeals to us, nor yet as a landscapist; but rather it is his power to fuse these two elements harmoniously into a melodious counterpart of what actually is there. This makes his sway over us well-nigh complete. There is in these poems the exact proportion of sunny gaiety and the sub-conscious sense of *lachrymæ rerum*, which is a dominant trait of southern peoples in general and Neapolitans in particular.

The Psychology of Religious Belief. By James Bissett Pratt. New York: The Macmillan Co. $1.50 net.

The questions which Professor Pratt has set for consideration are: Why do men believe? On what do their religious creeds actually rest? In what region of our psychic life is faith mainly intrenched? The answer, in brief, is that while many individuals believe from mere inertia and on unquestioned authority, and others because of the real or imagined force of a particular course of argument, the actual foundation of faith in the case of the large majority is an inner emotional experience, an irresistible personal intuition and conviction. The author takes pains to demonstrate that a large share of the most worthy and practical beliefs of mankind in other spheres than the religious are founded upon insight rather than upon demonstration, and his chief contention is that the faith of the present, based as it is upon emotional experiences which have their seat in the "fringe" rather than in the "centre" of consciousness, has a foundation upon which it may build securely. He contends that, as a matter of fact, spiritual insight is the present basis of belief with the large majority of thoughtful men, and the faith which is based on reasoned argument as well as unthinking credulity, is destined to grow less and less. But this fact, he holds, is not a discouraging one for the friends of religion; for upon this foundation a stronger piety than the past has witnessed is destined to be established.

One will be reminded of Schleiermacher's definition of religion as the feeling for the eternal, and it may perhaps be said that Professor Pratt has merely reached by labored psychological investigations results which prophets and mystics have long since declared in forms of rare beauty and with the larger carrying power of intense personal conviction. It is something, however, to have the passionate vision of Augustine, "Thou, O Lord, hast made us for Thyself, and our souls are restless till they rest in Thee," declared in the duller speech of the schools, which possibly some may hear whose ears are dead to the prophets. Professor Pratt labors painstakingly with the machinery of a questionnaire, and his review of religious belief in India, Israel, and the Christian Church, conveys the impression that the results of his observations of these faiths have been colored somewhat by conclusions from his own experiments; yet his answer to the question why men believe does not differ greatly from that which students of humanity have found most nearly true.

Memoirs of the Comtesse de Boigne, 1781-1814. Edited from the original MS. by Charles Nicoullaud. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.50 net.

The Comtesse Osmond de Boigne was, during the first half of the nineteenth century, a clever and attractive woman, whose salon was frequented by many distinguished persons. She is not to be ranked with Mme. Récamier, and though Sainte-Beuve, in a brief obituary notice at the end of the tenth volume of the "Nouveaux Lundis," gives her a few paragraphs of the same sinuous and lambent appreciation which he devotes in a longer essay to the greater social queen, the relative posthumous glory of the two women is probably what they deserve.

The Comtesse de Boigne, however, could use her pen as Mme. Récamier could not. She wrote a couple of novels, and she will be for a brief period the subject of renewed interest because of her recently published "Memoirs," edited by Charles Nicoullaud, of which the earlier portion, from 1781 to 1814, has appeared in English. Mme. de Boigne lived until 1866; consequently we have here only the first experiences of a long career, but they include a time of great social change, the last years of the old monarchy, the upstart Napoleonic court, and the régime of the Restoration, when Louis XVIII. tried to return to traditions of etiquette which had already become an anachronism. Her childhood was spent at Versailles, and she remembered many strik-

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ing customs of court manners and precedence. No less vivid are the descriptions of the feelings of the Parisians at the arrival of the Emperor Alexander and the allied armies, the lack of breeding of Louis XVIII. towards his benefactor, and of tact on the part of the whole royal family towards their new court.

For the rest, the volume is made up chiefly of anecdotes concerning persons of more or less notoriety in France, Italy, and England. In this last country the writer's family lived as *émigrés*, and there at the age of sixteen she was married to a man of forty-nine, a successful soldier of fortune, but a man whose temperament, affected by a life largely passed in the East Indies, made the marriage scarcely a union of Strephon and Phyllis. Mme. de Boigne gossips about Lady Hamilton, Mme. de Staël, Mme. Récamier, Mme. de Talleyrand; and the names of various decorous and indecorous dukes, marquises, generals, cardinals, bishops, and abbés, are sprinkled over her pages. She is more successful in her pen portraits and brief character sketches than in her allusions to the historical events with which she was indirectly concerned. The work contains much distinguished trifling, and is interesting for desultory reading or as a mine for quotation. But much is in the order of newspaper reporting, and it is clear that Mme. de Boigne's influence upon her friends was more through the heart than the head.

Science.

Plant-Breeding. By Hugo de Vries. Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Co. $1.50 net.

In this volume of 360 octavo pages, over eighty pages are given up to full-page illustrations, some of which are by no means required by the text. Hence the first impression is likely to be unfavorable. But, aside from superfluous illustration, the volume has sterling merit. It records in graphic and untechnical language the results obtained by three investigators in different but adjacent fields of study, which are of great interest at the present time. The author is a professor of botany in Amsterdam, who first distinguished himself as a contributor to plant-physiology, especially in connection with vegetable cells. Of late he has been occupied with one of the most important questions in evolution. The greatest difficulty which has confronted the theory of evolution as applied to organisms on our planet, is the fact that the time demanded for the development of their specialized parts, by the slow accumulation of structural differences, is far greater than the physicists can honestly concede to have elapsed since the surface of our earth was cool enough to become the abode of life. The period which the physicists appear to be willing to grant is from twenty to forty million years. But to most biologists the allowance of forty millions of years seems hardly enough for the production of such complicated types of organisms as now live on our earth. If the exceedingly minute variations have succeeded one another without here and there a leap or bound to shorten the time, the two classes of naturalists remain hopelessly at odds. If, however, sudden changes of considerable magnitude can be found at any points in the progress of development, the whole question becomes freed from some of its embarrassments.

It is at this portion of the field of inquiry that Professor de Vries has been conducting his investigations. He has subjected to careful examination the statement by Darwin, that "we have no evidence of the appearance, or at least of the continued procreation, under nature, of abrupt modifications of structure." Darwin recognized the occurrence of abrupt modifications, but held that only under the hand of the cultivator could these be perpetuated. Those who have of late years studied variation in organisms have reduced the subject to a system and have with one accord abandoned the old and vague descriptive terms used by Darwin and others at the outset, such as "slight," "considerable," "great," and have applied to the research sound methods of statistical investigation. Arithmetical and geometrical devices are freely employed, and, at the present time, tables and curves are important aids in precise description. Of the new school of students of variation De Vries is one of the most accurate. The author sketches his theory of sudden changes in the following manner (page 9):

Species are derived from other species by means of sudden small changes which in some instances may be scarcely perceptible to the inexperienced eye. From the first appearance they are uniform and constant, when propagated by seed; they are not connected with the parent species by intermediates, and have no period of slow development before they reach the full display of their characters. They do not always arise, but only from time to time. A parent species may produce its offspring separately at intervals, or in larger numbers during distinct mutating periods. After this production the old species is still the same that it was before, and it subsists in the midst of its children. . . . Some young species will be better fitted for their life conditions than others, and the struggle for life will induce a selection among them by which the fittest survive.

Professor de Vries has devoted a great deal of time to the examination of a comparatively few plants which have lent themselves to this sort of work, and he interprets all of his results as favorable to his theory of "Mutation." There are some weak places in his arguments, but even these, by the discussion they have raised, have increased the interest in the whole subject. All the work of de Vries, whether weak or strong, is stimulating. The present volume contains an interesting account of the methods which have been employed by Nilsson, Burbank, and others in the improvement of plants, and, as may be surmised, the results of these methods are largely and not unfairly appropriated by De Vries as strengthening his position. When one remembers that certain varieties, under ordinary cultural conditions, come "true" to seed, and when one keeps still further in mind the fact that some species manifest a remarkable tendency towards "race" variation, the conviction becomes very strong that the field of investigation, although it has of late been most assiduously cultivated, has a great deal more to yield.

This volume can be heartily recommended as an interesting and safe guide to amateurs who desire to examine more closely the variant plants around them.

The Macmillan Co.'s fall announcement list contains the second volume of the "Cyclopedia of American Agriculture," edited by Prof. L. H. Bailey; "Text-Book of Southern Agriculture," by Prof. F. S. Earle; "The Physiology of Plant Production," by Dr. B. M. Duggar; "Types of Farming," by Prof. L. H. Bailey; "Agriculture for High Schools," by Dr. G. F. Warren; "Crops for the Southern States," by Prof. J. F. Duggar; "Bacteria in Relation to Agriculture," by Dr. J. G. Lipman; "Forage Crops," by Edward B. Voorhees; "Practical Textbook of Plant Pathology," by D. F. Macdougal, Prof. F. S. Earle, and Prof. H. M. Richards; "Notes of a Botanist on the Amazon and Andes," by Dr. Richard Spruce, edited by Dr. Alfred R. Wallace; "The Dancing Mouse: a Study of Animal Behavior," by Robert M. Yerkes; "Lectures on the General Properties of Immunity, from the physico-chemical point of view," by Prof. Svante Arrhenius; "Nursing Technique," by Isabel McIsaac; "Vagino-Peritoneal Operations," by E. Wertheim and Th. Micholitsch, translated by Dr. Cuthbert Lockyer; "College Physics," by Prof. Henry Crew; Volume II. of "Elements of Electrical Engineering," Alternating Currents, by Prof. William S. Franklin and Prof. William Esty; "The Differential and Integral Calculus," by Prof. William F. Osgood; "Introduction to Higher Algebra," by Prof. Maxime Bocher and E. P. R. Duval; "Graphic Algebra," by Prof. Arthur Schultze; "Computation and Mensuration," by Prof. Preston A. Lambert; and "Larger Types of American Geography," by Charles A. McMurry.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will soon issue a "History of Nursing," the evolution of the methods of care for the sick from the earliest times to the foundation of the first English and American training schools for nurses, by Lavinia L. Dock and M. Adelaide Nutting.

In a handy little volume, "Introduction to Infectious and Parasitic Diseases, including their Cause and Manner of Transmission" (Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co.), Dr. Millard Langfeld gives an admirable brief survey of the various organisms now recognized as distinctly harmful. The book was originally intended for nurses, but the author was persuaded to alter the plan so as to adapt it to the requirements of medical students and physicians. As to nurses—the result is another argument for those who contend with growing insistence that the training of these most useful persons is already too complex and needs to be much simplified and abridged. For other readers, and even for the general reader, however, it would be hard to find a better concise statement of the more modern view of micro-organisms in their relation to disease. Particularly interesting are the almost too brief sections on immunity, including a discussion of the opsonins, those remarkable substances which seem to many to be a sort of master key for all these protective processes; but the classification of the non-specific and specific bacteria (p. 51) is somewhat obscure, and the terminology, although justified by numerous precedents, is inconsistent. There is a chapter on disinfection too vague for practical

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application, and another on the examination of secretions and excretions which contains decidedly too much or too little, according to the point of view.

Dr. R. W. Lovett's little book, "Lateral Curvature of the Spine and Round Shoulders" (P. Blakiston's Son & Co.) is quite too special for the general reader except perhaps in the few pages devoted to the bearing of school life and school furniture on these defects. While nothing particularly new is brought out, the discussion and incidental references may also be helpful to the better class of teachers and to "educators."

The *National Geographic Magazine* for August opens with a summary, by N. H. Darton, of the mineral resources of Mexico, which goes far to justify Humboldt's statement that "Mexico is the treasure house of the world." A description of the work of our Forest Service is given by one of its officials, H. A. Smith, in which there are numerous facts and figures showing the uses to which the reserves are put and the income which they bring to the Government. He closes with an impressive plea for the creation of national forests in Tennessee and New Hampshire. D. C. Falls contributes a vivacious account of the great national festival of St. Stephen, the founder of the Hungarian monarchy—who died in 1038, it may be noted, not 1036, as stated in the text—celebrated in August at Budapest. Each of these articles is profusely illustrated with full-page reproductions of interesting photographs. The other illustrations are well-chosen selections from the remarkable flashlight pictures of C. G. Schillings of the big game of Equatorial East Africa.

The most noteworthy of the contents of the *Geographical Journal* for August is Lieut. Boyd Alexander's account of his remarkable journey from the Niger to the Nile. Its chief geographical result was the demonstration of the existence of a wonderful system of waterways connecting the East with the West, the boats of the expedition having been carried but fourteen days during the three years' trip. Another valuable contribution to science was his collection of the fauna of the region traversed, which included eighteen new species of mammals, and proved the continuity of the fauna from Senegal across the Sudan to Abyssinia. His observations on Lake Chad showed that it really consisted of two lakes, separated by twenty-five miles of marsh and bush. He has a good word to say for the Congo Free State, having found the conditions of a numerous river people on the Welle "greatly improved since the Belgian occupation, for its protection shields them from the raids of the fiercer forest tribes." E. C. Young describes an interesting journey from Yün-nan to Assam to determine whether or not a trade route between China and India, south of the Tibetan frontier, was practicable. Some of the region passed through was dense forest, and much difficulty was experienced in crossing the mountain ranges, but there were districts, both fertile and populous, with physical characteristics rendering them suitable for the construction of roads and railways.

Drama.

Memoirs and Artistic Studies of Adelaide Ristori. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. $2.50 net.

The career of Adelaide Ristori was so full, so dignified, so triumphant, so thoroughly representative of all that was best in Italian dramatic art during the latter half of the nineteenth century, that it certainly deserves some more adequate and attractive literary monument than these ill-edited memoirs, with their excess of trivial and uninteresting detail and their plentiful lack of salient observation or comment with regard to incidents—professional, social, or political—in which the life of the actress must have been peculiarly rich. Not only is the arrangement of the matter slovenly—a defect, probably, for which Madame Ristori herself is mainly responsible—but the English translation supplied by Signor G. Mantellini reflects but little credit upon the original composition. That the book is inspired by a spirit of naïve egotism is not surprising. It is a manifestation common to most theatrical autobiographies, but it is a pity that Madame Ristori, a woman of indisputable genius, and with a capacity for sound judgment in many directions, should not have taken counsel with some competent literary advisers.

It must not be supposed, however, that the book is without substantial value. With all its crudities and imperfections it will reveal to the intelligent reader the character of the woman herself and the secret of her great success. To aspirants after stage honors it ought to be especially valuable, for the plain moral of it is that she owed her triumphs quite as much to conscientious and indefatigable labor as to the qualifications, mental and physical, with which she was endowed by nature. Almost born on the stage, she first attracted public attention by her girlish beauty and occasional flashes of natural dramatic power; but the mature impersonations upon which the secure foundations of her fame were laid were the result of minute and protracted study. In the case of each of her most famous parts, Marie Antoinette, Mary Stuart, Elizabeth, Phædra, Myrrha, Medea, etc., she consulted every available authority which could throw light upon the character to be portrayed or the dramatic situations in which it is made to figure. She sought eagerly for illuminating hints concerning personal characteristics, traits of disposition, methods of expression, nice details of costume, and so forth. To prepare herself for the impersonation of the older classic heroines she first familiarized herself with all the different versions of the ancient myths, that she might comprehend more clearly the elemental passions which she was to interpret. She examined the masterpieces of Greek art for information concerning the proper pose and gesture, the correct folding of drapery, the right coiffure, appropriate ornaments, and other minor points. Over and over again she insists upon the infinite importance of trifles and the inestimable advantages of beginning at the bottom and working up. Her chief aim, she says, was to preserve a "colored naturalness." While recognizing the importance of classic traditions in the representation of classical plays, she could find nothing admirable in the rhythmical chant employed at the Théâtre Français. It was an article of faith with her that the rules of the higher Italian tragedy, in recognizing the value of personal impulse and romantic coloring, offered more encouragement to inspired interpretation than the inflexible laws of a venerated tradition; and it was the ambition of her life—an ambition most fully gratified—to demonstrate to the whole civilized world the wondrous potency, if not the absolute superiority, of Italian dramatic art. She was still a young woman when, in the very heyday of Rachel's tragic reign in Paris, she forced the reluctant Parisians to forget their prejudices and acclaim her Myrrha as one of the most brilliant achievements of the age. Madame Ristori's long story of her now forgotten trouble with the great French actress is to-day rather superfluous, but her remarks on the difference between French and Italian acting are acute and sound. Her criticism of Rachel's Phèdre is at once appreciative and discriminating.

No attempt need be made here to recapitulate the well-known facts of her triumphs in all the chief cities of the world, from St. Petersburg to Buenos Ayres, from San Francisco to Constantinople. Perhaps the most remarkable representation in which she ever took part was that of "Francesca da Rimini," in Florence in 1865, when Salvini was Lanciotto, Rossi Paolo, and she herself Francesca. It is difficult to imagine a better cast. It was in 1882, in London, that she first played Lady Macbeth in English. This was an extraordinary feat in the circumstances, but one that has been accomplished also by Janauschek and Modjeska, while the latter was also the finest Rosalind of her time. Madame Ristori's serene confidence that her English enunciation was perfect is just a little pathetic, but her performance was one of great power and intelligence, along rather conventional lines. Being the star, she depicted the character as an almost demoniacal monster, by whom Macbeth was utterly dominated. She ought to have had Henry Irving as her associate.

The latter half of her book is largely occupied by what she calls analyses of her leading characters. These illustrate, to a certain degree, her system of study, but are in no sense analytical, and are particularly disappointing, inasmuch as, while indicating the points at which she strove to create her most striking effects, they say nothing about the technical means which she employed. She describes clearly enough the mood or passion to be expressed, but is generally silent as to the best means of expression. Few of her impersonations were more vital than her Mary Stuart and her Elizabeth, and the differentiation of them, in an artistic sense, was masterly. But she did justice to neither Queen. Mary was in her eyes a sainted martyr, Elizabeth the embodiment of all that was unscrupulous, hypocritical, and tyrannical. Her study of each was a model of consistency. The innate purity and deep pathos of her Myrrha, in Alfieri's terrible play, blinded her hearers to the horror of the story. In Medea she attained to splendid heights. And it must not be forgot-

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ten that she was as much admired in the comedies of Goldoni and in still lighter pieces as she was in the deepest tragedy. She was, in short, a great actress, as well as a finished artist. Moreover, she was a good and large-hearted woman, who was an honor to her profession. If her literary ability and instinct had been equal to her histrionic power, she would have given us a better book. Her judgment of her contemporaries was generous and just. She is enthusiastic in her praise of Duse, but deplores the neuroticism of which she is the victim. Bernhardt, she thinks, has degenerated, owing to her passion for climaxes. Novelli is a brilliant actor, but "abysses" below Salvini. D'Annunzio is not fit for the stage—all of which is most potently true.

"Le Voleur" of Henri Bernstein has had a great success in Paris, has been much discussed, and has provoked active rivalry among English and American managers. A version of it produced in the Lyceum Theatre of this city, on Monday evening, under the name of "The Thief," shows that it is by no means a great play, although it is an uncommonly clever and interesting bit of theatrical work. It has no high motive, or purpose, touches no vital problem, is not inspiring or instructive, and is not valuable as a human study, but it tells a melodramatic story with much skill and point, and with striking realism. Thus the entire action is supposed to occupy only twelve hours, and practically takes no longer on the stage than it would in actual life. The theme is the self-sacrifice of an infatuated youth who confesses himself guilty of theft to shield the honor of a married woman, who has persistently—in the English piece—resisted his advances. His sacrifice is in vain, as the woman falls under the suspicion of her husband, whom she adores, and is compelled at last to make a clean breast of it. The story, in its details, is as improbable as it is artificial, but in representation it is interesting and exciting, the scenes between the suspicious husband and the guilty wife, in the second act, being especially adroit, realistic, and effective. In these some excellent work was done at the Lyceum by Kyrle Bellew and Miss Margaret Illington, and there seems to be no doubt that the play will have a long run. The general presentation and management of the piece were competent to a degree not common in recent New York experience.

The programme for the coming season at the Irving Place Theatre is at all events rich in promise. In addition to works of German authors, ancient and modern, classic and popular, it includes specimens of French, Belgian, Italian, Spanish, and Russian drama. The British theatre is represented by Shakespeare and Oscar Wilde.

Music.

EDVARD GRIEG.

Edvard Hagerup Grieg died at Bergen, Norway, on September 4. He was born there in 1843. On his father's side, he was a descendant of a Scottish merchant, who emigrated from Aberdeen soon after the battle of Culloden. His musical talent he inherited from his mother, who appeared as a pianist in concert, and also sang agreeably. She it was who taught him the rudiments of his art, and who imbued him with that ardent national spirit which informs all the work of his maturity. As a boy he thought of becoming a clergyman, but at the age of twelve or thirteen he had already tried his hand at musical composition. He showed no passionate interest in the subject, however, until he was fifteen. At that time Ole Bull came to visit the boy's parents. Grieg himself has left us the record of that experience:

When he heard I had composed music, I had to go to the piano; all my entreaties were in vain. I cannot now understand what Ole Bull could find in my juvenile pieces. But he was quite serious and talked quietly to my parents. The matter of their discussion was by no means disagreeable to me. For suddenly Ole Bull came to me, shook me in his own way, and said, "You are to go to Leipzig and become a musician."

His parents readily fell in with the proposal. At the Leipzig Conservatory, his life was hard in many ways, and his peculiar talent was not always recognized by his instructors. Hauptmann, however, appreciated the boy's work and encouraged him. Wenzel, Richter, and Moscheles also taught him much. One of his fellow-students was Arthur Sullivan. While he was at the Conservatory he suffered from a severe attack of pleurisy, resulting in the complete loss of his left lung. From the date of his entrance in 1858 till his graduation with honor in 1862 his talent developed steadily but slowly.

After graduation he went to Copenhagen, where he pursued his studies informally under Gade and Emil Hartmann. He was also much influenced by the young Norwegian composer, Richard Nordraak, in company with whom he entered upon a crusade for fostering the purely national spirit in Norwegian music. Even his early works show his strong feeling for a musical style based upon the traditional ballads of his native land, and differing sharply from the classical German art. In 1871 Grieg founded a musical society in Christiania, which he continued to lead until four years later, when he established himself once more at Bergen. By this time he had composed his two great violin sonatas, F-sharp, op. 8, and G-sharp, op. 13. In regard to Opus 8 Franz Liszt wrote to him from Rome in 1868:

It bears witness to a strong talent for composition, a talent that is reflective, inventive, provided with excellent material, and which needs only to follow its natural inclinations to rise to a high rank.

The letter had momentous consequences, for the Norwegian Government granted Grieg a sum of money which enabled him to go to Rome and see Liszt personally and draw inspiration from him. Grieg's account of that meeting is full of interest. He played his own compositions to the great master, who continually interrupted him with exclamations of approval and delight, and strongly urged him to "keep steadily on" and cultivate his peculiar vein.

Despite impaired health, Grieg had succeeded by 1880 in establishing his fame in all musical cities as a composer, and in many also as a conductor and a pianist. At Bergen, during the seasons of 1880 to 1882, he conducted the Harmonien. He was deeply interested in these concerts, although his orchestra was, of course, not of the best. From this time on he gave occasional concerts in England, France, and Germany. In England, in 1889, at a Philharmonic concert, he led with great success the "Peer Gynt Suites," which London had heard for the first time the year before. In Paris, also, Grieg was equally popular. His originality and nervous charm were qualities to which the French music-lovers readily responded.

Rural life always had great attractions for Grieg, and from the spring of 1877 he was domiciled for several years in a cottage built by himself which overhangs the Hardangerfjord, amid scenery made famous by the Norwegian poet Wergeland. After some years passed in Christiania and abroad, he returned to the Norwegian fjords and established himself near the old city of Bergen, where he built the house known to musical pilgrims as "Troldhangen." Here he dwelt in close communion with nature in its most characteristically national phase. Here also his accomplished and devoted wife continued to aid and inspire him as she had done since the early years of their marriage. It was for her that the famous song, "Ich liebe dich," was written during the days of her betrothal to the struggling young composer, then too poor and unpopular to marry and support the woman he loved. After their marriage Edvard and Nina Grieg visited a few cities and gave recitals of his music, for Mrs. Grieg was a remarkable interpreter of her husband's songs.

Indeed, it is in his lyrics that Grieg reaches the height of his genius—both in content and form. His *Lieder* number one hundred and twenty-five, and among these are few that fall below the standard of his greatest work. They are a mine of melody, surpassed in wealth only by Schubert's, and that only because there are more of Schubert's. In originality of harmony and modulation he has, according to competent critics, only six equals, Bach, Schubert, Chopin, Schumann, Wagner, and Liszt. Though most of Grieg's works are songs and piano-forte pieces, there is yet a fair amount of orchestral and chamber music. The "Grieg Katalog," printed by C. F. Peters in Leipzig, contains a list of nine works for orchestra: Overture, "In the Autumn," op. 11; "Two Elegiac Melodies," for string orchestra, op. 34; "Norwegian Dances," op. 35; "Holberg Suite," for string orchestra, op. 40; "Peer Gynt Suites," I. and II., op. 46 and 55; "Two Melodies," for string orchestra, op. 53; "Sigurd Jorsalfar," op. 56; "Two Northern Melodies," for string orchestra, op. 66. Of these the "Peer Gynt Suites" are perhaps best known to the general public in this country. They were popularized in the first instance by Anton Seidl. Several of them, such as "The Death of Asa," "Anitra's Dance," and "In the Palace of the Gnome King," were always received with enthusiastic applause. All this "Peer Gynt" music was intensely national in its characteristics, and was extraordinarily felicitous in reproducing the moods of the particular parts of the text which it illustrated. Of this fact the late Richard Mansfield was fully aware when he caused most of the music to be played during his presentation of the play.

Volume IV. of J. Fuller Maitland's revi-

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sion and enlargement of "Grove's Dictionary of Music and Musicians" will be issued this fall by the Macmillan Co.; also "The High School Song Book," by Edward J. A. Zenier.

"Job," a dramatic cantata by F. S. Converse, has just been issued in vocal score by the H. W. Gray Co. (Novello & Co.). It was written for the fiftieth annual festival of the Worcester County Musical Association, 1907.

The prospectus of Oscar Hammerstein for the coming season at the Manhattan Opera House contains a number of light operas never before heard in this country. Among his productions will be:

Berlioz, "Le Damnation de Faust."
Bizet, "Carmen."
Boito, "Mephisto."
Breton, "Dolores."
Charpentier, "Louise."
Donizetti, "Lucia di Lammermoor."
Debussy, "Péléas et Mélisande."
Giordana, "André Chenier."
Gounod, "Roméo et Juliette."
Leoncavallo, "Pagliacci."
Mascagni, "Cavalleria Rusticana."
Massenet, "Thais," "Jongleur de Nôtre Dame," "Manon," "Navarraise."
Meyerbeer, "Le Prophète," "Les Huguénots."
Mozart, "Don Giovanni."
Offenbach, "Contes Hoffmann."
Ponchielli, "Giaconda."
Puccini, "La Bohême."
Saint-Saëns, "Hélène."
Verdi, "Aïda," "Rigoletto," "Traviata," "Trovatore."
Wagner, "Lohengrin," "Tannhäuser," "Tristan und Isolde."

At the opening of the Paris opera in January, Rameau's "Hyppolyte et Aricie," produced in 1733, is to be revived; "Götterdämmerung" is to be given for the first time in Paris; and "Monna Vanna," by a young French composer, Février, is to be presented.

In Rome the opera season is to begin December 26, with Wagner's "Maestri Cantori," known elsewhere as "Die Meistersinger." The repertory will also include four operas new to Rome—the "Salome" of Strauss, Puccini's "Madame Butterfly," Cilea's "Gloria," and "Sperduti nel buio," by a young Neapolitan composer named Donaudy. At Milan the list for the coming season is headed by Wagner's "Götterdämmerung, with Mme. Litvinne as Brunnhilde.

Art.

Letters to a Painter By W. Ostwald; translated by H. W. Morse. Boston: Ginn & Co. 90 cents net.

Wilhelm Ostwald is a man of science who has amused his leisure with the study of painting, and in this volume he discusses the theory and practice of the art from the scientific point of view, with results worthy of the attention of all professional painters. He is not much concerned with the chemistry of pigments, which has been elaborately treated by others; rather he deals with the laws of optics, with the scientific reasons for those differences of effect between opaque and transparent colors on which traditional methods are founded, and with the proper use of various mediums—pastel, water-color, tempera, oils, etc.—and their different adaptability to the rendering of natural effects.

No page of the little volume is without its interest, and his discussion of fresco painting may be especially recommended to those who are inclined to regret the modern disuse of that very imperfect method; but we have been most impressed by his treatment of oil painting, the least understood to-day, as it is the most practised, of all technical methods. Of the effects to be obtained by glazing—effects peculiar to painting in oil—he says that they "appear to be disdained to some extent; perhaps because artists are not sufficiently acquainted with them, and also in part because their application demands a more complicated technique than the easy laying on of previously mixed colors." For heavily loaded or "pasty" painting he can find no justification, remarking that "colors . . . are usually made so opaque by their content of lead white that a layer a tenth of a millimetre thick prevents underlying colors from appearing at all," while the only optical effect to be gained by thick painting is that of "a bright spot of light on the smooth surface of a drop of color." While there is thus little to be gained by heavy painting, except in small spots, there is a great deal to lose, for "in the course of time an oil painting goes to pieces the more certainly the thicker the paint has been laid on." "I will not deny," he humorously adds, "that this prospect has very often been somewhat of a comfort to me in visiting exhibitions of paintings."

Not only in this matter but in a hundred others the serious student of the technical art of painting will find a clear reason given for what he has painfully learned in practice, or a necessary correction or amplification of his imperfect conclusions. And if some problems are admittedly unsolved, yet a clear view of what these problems are, and of the method by which their solution should be attempted, is afforded. The placing of the book in the hands of every art student would do more for the cause of sound education than any number of lectures on æsthetics.

The Macmillan Co. expects to issue this autumn "Great Buildings and How to Enjoy Them," Norman Architecture, by Edith A. Browne; "Pottery and Porcelain Marks," by W. Burton.

In October the Century Co. will issue Timothy Cole's "Old Spanish Masters."

Otto Walter Beck's "Art Principles in Portrait Photography" (The Baker & Taylor Co.) is an attempt to apply certain ideas of pictorial composition to the photographic portrait. It is elaborately illustrated and, for the most part, clearly enough written. Mr. Beck's "principles" are generally very good, but we cannot say as much for his practice. His method is to take the plainest kind of plain photograph, as literal and uninteresting as possible, and by manipulation of the background, and even of the figure and head, to bring it into some sort of composition. This he does with a good deal of intelligence, and easily proves that the resultant pictures are more artistic in effect than the "straight" photographs with which he started. They are also distressingly woolly and formless. Accessories and bits of costume created with a brush, to be tolerable, demand a knowledge of form and of light and shade in their creator which the practice of photography does little to cultivate. Any one able to make successfully such changes on his photographic plates as Mr. Beck recommends would know enough to dispense with photography altogether, and to create real, not bastard, works of art. The juries, composed entirely of professional painters, of the photographic salons of the last two years, almost invariably preferred "straight" to "manipulated" photographs, and there were many examples in these salons of what could be accomplished by careful selection and arrangement of subject and lighting, almost, or entirely, without subsequent retouching. The time for the application of Mr. Beck's "principles" is before, not after, the negative is made. It is true that it requires more knowledge of composition to arrange costume and background beforehand in view of a determined result than it does to lick these elements into some kind of shape afterwards, but if photographers wish to be considered artists they should be willing to take some fraction of the pains that other artists take. While we cannot, therefore, recommend any one to follow Mr. Beck's precepts, yet a photographer who is willing to apply ideas of composition in the more laborious manner of previous thought and care in the selection and arrangement of his material, may learn a good deal from this book.

Close on his "Church Plate of the Diocese of Bangor," E. Alfred Jones has produced a no less valuable volume, "The Old Church Plate of the Isle of Man." Of Pre-Reformation plate the island can still show two examples, the chalice at Kirk Patrick and the paten at Kirk Malew. The former is parcel-gilt, with the date-letter 1521-2. It has a shallow conical bowl and a sexfoil foot with an engraving of the Crucifixion. On the stem is a "knop" with six diamond-shaped projections adorned with angel faces. The paten, which Mr. Jones places circa 1525, has on its rim the inscription, "Sancte Lupe ora pro nobis." As to the identity of this saint there appears to be some doubt; some believe him to be the well-known disciple of St. German, others see in him an Irish saint, Moliba or Molipa, and suppose his name to have been Latinized into Lupus. Owing, it is suggested, to the tenacity with which the Manx people clung to the "reliques of Popish superstition," "the decent communion-cups" and paten-covers of the time of Elisabeth are conspicuous by their absence. The only example of this period still extant is the stemless drinking-cup or "beaker" at Kirk German. This is dated 1591-2, and was intended, no doubt, for secular purposes. The lip has a handsome decoration of strap-work and rose-sprays.

The Engineering Experiment Station of the University of Illinois has just published as Bulletin No. 13 "An Extension of the Dewey Decimal Classification applied to Architecture and Building." This greatly extended classification has been in use in the department of architecture for many years, but it has never before been published. In its present form it is believed that this bulletin will prove useful to architects, engineers, and constructors in classifying books, pamphlets, articles in periodicals, and all other material relating to architecture and construction. Copies

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may be secured upon application to the director of the Engineering Experiment Station, Urbana, Ill., L. P. Breckenridge.

The addition of a Corot to the National Gallery in London is something of an event—a concession, it might almost seem, to the great *entente cordiale*, about which so much is heard just now, and which is to reach its climax next summer in the Anglo-French, or Franco-British, exhibition at Shepherd's Bush. The French rooms have long been a discredit to the National Gallery. The art of no country is so poorly represented there as that of France. Until quite recently, there was next to nothing to show that French art had not come to an end with Claude. It was because of this inadequate representation that one regretted the conditions under which the Wallace collection was bequeathed to the nation; if the pictures, instead of being kept together, could have been distributed to other collections where they were most needed, the French rooms in Trafalgar Square would have ceased to be the disgrace they still are. Lately, a few more modern pictures have crept into them—a Boudin, an Isabey, a Diaz, Fantin's portrait of Mr. and Mrs. Edwin Edwards. And now, at last, comes a Corot, left as a legacy to the National Gallery by Mrs. Edwards, who, some years ago, gave the portrait by Fantin. It is neither a very important, nor very characteristic Corot; a small sketch of marshes under a gray sky, cool, gray, pleasant, suggestive, but by no means a work that would explain to the ignorant the reason of Corot's reputation, or satisfy those who understand and would like to see justice done to him among the masters. However, it may be the thin end of the wedge, and certainly its presence at the National Gallery—for which hitherto Corot and the men of Barbizon never existed—is a fact to be noted. With it, Mrs. Edwards bequeathed another picture, an unusually fine painting of flowers by Fantin, to whom for years she and her husband were good friends. It is simple—a bunch of roses in a tumbler, but it is dated 1864 and was done at Fantin's finest period, before he reduced his flowers to a formula and turned them out year after year, until each new version seemed little more than a replica of the last. It is by his portraits and early pictures, like this, that he will be best remembered.

Finance.

THE QUESTION OF TRADE REACTION.

Ever since the severe strain on the security markets, reflecting an equal strain on the world's supplies of capital, assumed the foremost place in financial calculations some months ago, practically all the markets have accepted the conclusion that genuine relief could come only through decided reaction in general trade. The reason for this belief was simple. A good part of the disorder arose, no doubt, from the absorption of money by stock exchanges, notably in the United States, where the extravagant Wall Street speculation which began a year ago had most unfortunate results. But it was recognized all along that these speculative demands were only a partial cause of the abnormal situation. It is, in fact, quite possible that had the natural drafts of trade on the world's money supplies been no greater than three or four years ago, the demands for stock exchange speculation might have been easy to provide for.

The real underlying phenomenon, recognized by all experienced observers, was that the enormous volume to which the transactions of ordinary trade and production had risen had in itself directly stimulated the demand on capital beyond available supply. How much these exceptional trade requirements were a consequence of the unusually high prices, which called for more money than ever before in the conduct of commerce and manufactures, and how much was due merely to the feeling of the whole community that this was a time to spend *ad libitum* and take no thought of saving, is an open question. Undoubtedly each influence has played an important part. Not only was it true that a given enterprise, which was able to keep going half a dozen years ago by borrowing, say, half a million dollars, now had to borrow twice that sum; but the number of such enterprises, and the number of separate communities which were engaged in trade on the same large scale, had passed all precedent. Therefore, it was a natural argument that, since the fundamental difficulty was the inability of accruing capital to overtake the steady increase in requirements, these requirements must themselves be reduced. This could be done in only two ways—by such a sudden cutting-down of commodity prices as could hardly be looked for immediately, or by reduction in the volume of industry itself.

Precisely the same view was taken in 1903, when a warning similar to this year's was given by the New York Stock Exchange. The prosperous interior communities, on which the activity in trade and production then as now converged, expressed at the start complete skepticism as to the possibility of such reaction. After the middle of the year, and after several months of collapsing Stock Exchange prices, industry began to be affected, notably through the falling off of orders in the iron trade; and during the last half of 1903 there were unquestionably extensive curtailments of business throughout the United States.

The result was interesting. In the first place, it was found that in the preceding business activity such unusual sums of ready cash had been used in ordinary hand-to-hand circulation that even the moderate check to the movement which occurred toward the end of 1903 turned into the banks of every community a mass of currency no longer needed in the lighter trade. This currency was shipped to the large financial centres of the East, where the banks, if they chose, could place it at the disposal of Stock Exchange speculators or of investors. It will be recalled that, as a consequence of this eastward flow of currency, the New York banks, by the middle of August, 1904, were able to report a surplus reserve of $58,600,000, a figure never exceeded except in the absolute trade paralysis of 1894. Then the wealthy speculators of New York, borrowing on easy terms these enormous supplies of money, and believing that the industrial situation was at bottom sound, began to pave the way for the extravagant stock speculation which reached its climax in the autumn of 1906.

Now, it was natural that when warnings such as those of the earlier half of 1903 resulted thus, and when curtailment of plans not only led directly to superabundant supplies of capital, but placed the merchants and manufacturers in a position where, a few months later, they were unable to fill the demands of their own customers, some rather broad inference should have been drawn for future occasions. This perhaps explains one phenomenon of the present season—financial markets throughout the world predicting that trade activity must be reduced, and trade itself making practically no response to such predictions. In a few centres where inflation of prices had been conspicuous—such as copper—prices have fallen somewhat rapidly; but even the cut of six cents a pound in the price maintained for copper by the American producers brought the quotation to a level still far above the normal height of recent years. In other industries, such as iron, the fall, whether in prices or in trade activity, has been extremely slight—no more, in fact, than has been duplicated in a number of quiet and normal years.

In the American iron industry at the present time, notwithstanding all predictions of reaction, the output is sold up to the end of 1907; stocks on hand are very small, and for many branches of finished material delivery cannot be promised earlier than eight months hence. Exchanges of checks last week at the banks in the United States, though much decreased from this period in 1906, still ran beyond the total of two years ago this month; and as to 1906, it must be remembered how greatly the volume of bank exchanges was then affected by the stock speculation, of which hardly any sign is seen to-day.

In Europe, almost the same state of affairs seems to exist. Recent reviews of trade from Germany point out that the electrical manufacturers have orders for months ahead; that the textile industries are active, and that orders for iron and steel still come in on an extensive scale. France tells the same story. How great the normal demand of our own railways is for material of this sort may be judged from their issue of no less than $800,000,000 new securities during the very period of money stringency since the opening of last December.

Such a response to the warnings of the spring, by the industrial markets of the world, adds interest to the question whether the problems of our recent finance can be solved without the industrial reaction such as is seemingly not yet in sight. This is a question to which an off-hand answer is not easy. On the one hand, it is undoubtedly true that in recent years so much capital has been absorbed in Stock Exchange operations pure and simple that its release may possibly make good a deficiency which seemed to require far more drastic measures. The money markets at New York and London have eased quite unexpectedly this past week, at the very time when a rise in rates was naturally expected; this may or may not be a sign of permanent relief. For the rest, it will be necessary to await the action of the financial markets later in the season.

One thing may safely be said, that if the feeling, out of which the recent extravagant inflation of values and expansion of trade activity have grown leads to resist-

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ance of all normal processes of reaction and rest, and if, in consequence, speculators resume their plans on the narrow margin of free capital which the world is able to offer to them, even now, the result might go far toward bringing the more serious consequences which were predicted by not a few competent observers when the troubles of 1907 began.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Annual Report of the Henry Phipps Institute. Edited by Joseph Walsh. Philadelphia: Published by the Institute.
Auringer, O. C. Friendship's Crown of Verse. Clinton, N. Y.: George William Browning.
Bigelow, Frank Hagar. Studies on the Thermodynamics of the Atmosphere. Washington: Weather Bureau.
Blair, Louisa Coleman, and Robert Findlater Williams. Nathaniel Bacon: A Play in Four Acts. Richmond, Va.: The Hermitage Press.
Bourke, S. Ten Eyck. Fables in Feathers. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Buckham, James. Afield with the Season. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25 net.
Brady, Cyrus Townsend. The Blue Ocean's Daughter. Moffat, Yard & Co. $1.50.
Calendar of Letter-Books of the City of London. Letter Book H. Edited by Reginald R. Sharpe. London: John Edward Francis.
Calhoun, Mary E. Dorothy's Rabbit Stories. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Canfield, William W. The Spotter. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.50.
Dante Society, Twenty-fifth Annual Report of the. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Fuller, Caroline. Brunhilde's Paying Guest. Century Co. $1.50.
Genung, John Franklin. The Idylls and the Ages. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents net.
Graham, Harry. Familiar Faces. Duffield & Co. $1.
Hawkes, Clarence. The Little Water-Folks. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents.
Herbert, William. Houses for Town or Country. Duffield & Co. $2.
High Living. Compiled by L. L. McLaren. Paul Elder & Co. 75 cents net.
Holleman, A. F. A Text-Book of Organic Chemistry. Translated by A. Jamieson Walker and Owen E. Mott. John Wiley & Sons. $2.50.
Humor, A Book of American: Prose.—Humor, A Book of American: Verse. Duffield & Co.
Ibsen, Henrik, The Collected Works of. Vol. V.: Emperor and Galilean. Edited by William Archer. Scribners. $1.
Illinois Historical Collections. Edited by Clarence Walworth Alvord. Vol. II. Springfield, Ill.: Illinois State Historical Library.
Jefferson, Charles E. The Old Year and the New. 75 cents net. The New Crusade. $1.50. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.
Lincoln's Gettysburg Oration and First and Second Inaugural Addresses. Duffield & Co. 60 cents net.
Marden, Orison Swett. The Optimistic Life. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25 net.
Omar Khayyám, The Rubáiyát of. Duffield & Co.
Parker, Franklin E. Capital Punishment. Published by the author. 10 cents.
Peple, Edward. Semiramis. Moffat, Yard & Co. $1.50.
Phelps, William Lyon. The Pure Gold of Nineteenth Century Literature. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.
Poe's Poems. Edited by Edmund Clarence Stedman and George Edward Woodberry. Duffield & Co. $1.
St. Francis of Assisi's Canticle of the Sun. Duffield & Co. 60 cents net.
Salvarona. The Nervous System of Jesus. Langhorne, Pa.: H. G. Walters.
Saunders, Marshall. Beautiful Joe. Philadelphia: Griffith & Rowland Press. $1.25.
Schaff, Philip. History of the Christian Church. Vol. V., Part I. Scribners. $3.25 net.
Sinclair, May. The Helpmate. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Symons, Arthur. William Blake. Dutton. $3 net.
Frowde.
Thirtle, James William. Old Testament Problems. Henry Frowde. $2.40.
Van Norden, Charles. Yoland of Idle Isle. Appleton. $1.50.
Viereck, George Sylvester. The House of the Vampire. Moffat, Yard & Co. $1.25.
Wells, Carolyn. Rainy Day Diversions. Moffat, Yard & Co. $1 net.
Wheeler, Albert Harry. First Course in Algebra. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.15 net.
Winckler, Hugo. The History of Babylonia and Assyria. Translated by James Alexander Craig. Scribners. $1.50 net.

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